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ABSTRACT

Designed to help teachers improve instruction at the beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels for non English speakers and other foreign born adult students, this handbook contains suggestions and ideas for developing language skills and imparting knowledge necessary for good citizenship. Chapters cover objectives and adult characteristics, followed by teacher training and the recruitment, reception, and placement of students; common expressions, sentence building, and other language instructional content; content and vocabulary for citizenship and everyday living, including an extensive outline for history teaching; guidelines for teaching linguistic and citizenship content; initial preparations and subsequent lesson planning; using meaningful experiences and activities to enrich the learning process; and the evaluation of pronunciation, vocabulary, grasp of sentence structure, and knowledge of citizenship. A glossary, chapter bibliographies, and four appendixes (conversation drill, aids for teaching pronunciation, community resources, ideas for a program brochure) are included. (LY)

RESOURCE HANDBOOK FOR teaching & administering americanization programs

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RESOURCE HANDBOOK

for

TEACHING AND ADMINISTERING AMERICANIZATION PROGRAMS

Preliminary Edition

The University of the State of New York
THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development
Albany, New York 12224
1970

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FOREWORD

This project has been designed to encourage administrators and instructors of Americanization programs to examine and improve their methods of instruction by providing them with teaching practices and guidelines contributed by successful teachers of the foreign-born. Adults come to Americanization programs with many differing characteristics, abilities, and backgrounds. Each student should be provided with the kind of instruction which will meet his specific needs. For the teacher's guidance, items are suggested for beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels.

This handbook contains suggestions and ideas for developing language skills and providing education necessary for good citizenship. Instructors lacking professional training in Teaching English as a Second Language will find in these materials the help they need. This publication should be regarded as a useful and effective guide based upon the practical experience of teachers in the field, and not as a prescribed course of study. Selection and adaptation from this material should be made in accordance with the goals and requirements of local programs.

Appreciation is expressed to the members of the planning committee: David Alexander, Rochester Public Schools; James Jones, White Plains Public Schools; Margaret Kielty, Director of Adult Education, Fitchburg, Massachusetts; Mary C. McDonald, Assistant Director, Bureau of Community Education, New York City Public Schools; Jeanette Macero, Director, Americanization Center, Syracuse; David Thomas, Rochester Public Schools; and Josephine White, New York City Public Schools, for their work in planning, organizing, and reviewing the project. Nicholas DeLuca, Administrative Assistant and Richard Elliot, Bethlehem Central Schools, Delmar, revised portions of the manuscript. Special appreciation is expressed to Mary Finocchiaro, Professor of Education, Hunter College, New York City, for her valuable contributions as a member of the advisory committee as well as for her participation in the writing, review, and revision of the manuscript.

Warren C. Shaver, Chief, Bureau of Special Continuing Education and Boyd Campbell, Associate in that Bureau, have worked actively on the development of this publication, determined the order and overall design of the materials presented, and revised large portions of the original manuscript. William Jonas, formerly of this Bureau, now Associate, Bureau of General Continuing Education, coordinated the early development and original writing of the publication. William Hemmer, Associate in the Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development, prepared the final manuscript for publication.

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MESSAGE TO INSTRUCTORS

Americanization programs have long been an important part of continuing education in New York State. Traditionally, such programs have provided immigrants with the skills necessary for success in their new environment; opportunities for social contact; and understandings of the history, traditions, and government of their new country.

To many newly arrived Americans, the Americanization class is their first personal contact with our educational system. The personal experiences and educational foundations obtained in this program often become a vital part of their lives and open the door to further continuing education. These new arrivals should be encouraged to expand their horizons and realize their full potentials by taking advantage of other continuing education offerings. It is therefore, essential that the Americanization class provide them with worthwhile experiences and a heightened sense of belonging to our society and at the same time provide communities with cultural enrichment through the assimilation of diverse groups.

In spite of many individual differences, these students have many common problems in adjusting to American life. The teacher has to be vigilant to relate the content of his lessons to the common needs of the students. Methods and materials need to be adapted to the needs and background of the students by teachers who are sensitive to the problems that individual students face in making the adjustment to our society.

Americanization teachers should be prepared to use a variety of teaching techniques with various groupings within the same class. Oral drills, audiovisual aids, challenging written material, judicious praise, and encouragement will enable the teacher to help each student make progress toward the fulfillment of his goals.

This handbook is the fourth of several publications designed to improve instruction in Americanization classes. The other publications include a series of basic lessons in English, a bibliography of teaching materials, and a filmstrip manual for use with the filmstrip set entitled "Our Language and Culture."

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CHAPTER 1

THE AMERICANIZATION PROGRAM — ITS OBJECTIVES AND THE STUDENTS IT SERVES

Some Preliminary Considerations

The education of adults for citizenship places a heavy professional responsibility on teachers and administrators. Many factors have to be considered; many tasks are involved. No handbook can presume to list all of these since they will differ in each situation. What handbooks--including this one--can do, however, is to bring together the observations and practices which have already proved successful, as well as those findings of current research which provide significant guidelines for educational practice.

This handbook is based on the conviction that the most effective program is one which recognizes that adults come to the Americanization Program with many differing characteristics: they range in age from 18 to 80; they differ in linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds; in their ability to speak English; in their rates, styles, and capacities for learning.

This handbook also recognizes that certain characteristics of the program will vary according to the school and the community in which it is located. For example, if the number of students warrants no more than one class for adults, there will be a wide spectrum of student differences within the class. On the other hand, if there are enough students to require several classes, various patterns of placement based on the differences listed in the preceding paragraph will reduce the range of these differences.

The nature of the community also plays an important role in how the program will evolve. A community in which English is the major language offers "built-in" reinforcement of the class program, reinforcement that will not be found where another tongue predominates. A community may be in the "inner city," in a rural area, or in a suburb. It may provide easy access to numerous social and cultural resources. Lacking these, the teacher may have to present many experiences vicariously while still making maximum use of the potential which the basic institutions of every community offer.

No matter who or where the students are, teachers and administrators must meet a two-fold responsibility: each student must be helped to grow in his ability to use the communication skills with ever-increasing effectiveness, and to gain cultural insights in order that he may become a well-integrated, participating citizen in society. While these goals are the same for all students, the factors already noted make it obvious that not all the students will achieve these goals at the same time or to the same extent. Teachers and administrators will have to mold the learning environment continuously so that each student can achieve his highest individual potential at the same time that he is enabled to identify with his peers in group experiences and activities.

Accordingly, this handbook presents an overall description of the content and methodology of citizenship education. From it, the teacher may select those elements of content and methodology which meet both the common needs of the entire class and the specific needs of each individual.

Provision is specifically made in sample lesson plans, in discussions of skill development, and in descriptions of learning activities for those experiences in which an entire class may engage no matter what its composition or learning level. In addition, experiences are suggested through which individuals may be helped to gain knowledge or skills according to their needs, abilities, and backgrounds.

The curriculum content in this handbook provides a wide range of language items, citizenship content, and skill development. Individuals should be taught according to their performance and actual knowledge. One student in the Program may be quite competent in silent reading but an absolute beginner in the listening and speaking skills. Another may possess a wide knowledge of the American political system--based on reading in his native language perhaps--without having the most rudimentary knowledge of how to get about or function in his community. Each should be provided with the kind of program which will meet his specific needs. It is important, therefore, that the teacher:

- Assesses the student's background in each of the areas of the program
- Determines the priorities for structure, vocabulary, or citizenship content--building on the knowledge and skills he knows his students possess
- Selects those items or skills which require special class or individual presentation
- Provides for the continuous, judicious reentry of previously taught material and for the recombination of several items which have been previously introduced and practiced
- On the basis of these, plans the scope and sequence of the total program, subject to ongoing evaluation and to the emerging needs of the students

For the teacher's guidance in selecting items or in using a spiral approach in teaching, many examples of items or skills at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels are indicated. Inherent, however, in the organization of this handbook is the hope that teachers will go beyond the beginning levels, when individuals or groups of students are ready to go to the next higher level, and that teachers will give students at the intermediate or advanced level practice in beginning language items or insight into elementary citizenship facts whenever necessary.

In line with this approach, teachers may find it helpful to read the handbook in its entirety; to relate the recommended theory, methodology, and materials to the needs of their respective classes; and to turn, as the need arises, to specific sections dealing with lesson formats, drills, techniques, or materials. The teacher can select and adapt the recommendations made throughout the handbook, basing his actions upon the specific needs of his students. In this way, the theories and practices embodied in this book--enriched by the teacher's knowledge and ability--may be of maximum service to the students and the community.

What Are The General Aims Of The Americanization Program?

The Citizenship Program is the basic educational unit upon which many who come to the United States build. It plays a vital part in their lives and in the determination of the opportunities which will be opened to them. Both the Nation and the individual will gain from rising achievement in education. To continue to build a modern, industrial country in which all can share the benefits of science and technology, the United States will need all the professional and skilled citizens it can get. To maintain the high standards already achieved, the Nation needs numerous skilled workers and professionals in all echelons of industry. New arrivals should therefore be encouraged to continue their education, to expand their horizons, and to realize their potentials. This will give them a heightened sense of belonging to our society and a feeling of responsibility and worth essential to a happy existence.

What Are The Specific Objectives Of The Americanization Program?

Briefly stated, the specific objectives of the Program are:

- To develop the skills of communication: listening, speaking, reading, and writing English
- To foster an appreciation of the cultural heritage and mores of American life
- To develop an appreciation of the many and varied contributions of the different peoples from many lands who are responsible for the United States as it now is

- To develop knowledge and firm understanding of American history, government, and institutions, leading to identification with the goals of American democracy

- To develop insight into the values and beliefs underlying public life in the United States and to encourage them to become effective, participating citizens (e.g. involving themselves in elections, civic associations, and political organizations)

- To instill a desire for further knowledge and learning so that they may fulfill all their creative needs and instincts and learn to use their latent talents both for their individual good and for the benefit of society as a whole

- To help prepare the students for the naturalization examination

The students have to develop sufficient skill in pronunciation, intonation, and knowledge of grammar and vocabulary to understand and to speak. Moreover, they will need to learn to read English with ease and enjoyment and to write as creatively as their native ability will allow. Students also need encouragement in broadening their field of reading as a means of learning about the public and private resources and privileges open to them and about the responsibilities of each citizen in the continuing development of community, state, and Nation.

The teacher's attention to these objectives will enable newcomers to find their niche in the community more quickly. It will also stimulate them to become active and valued citizens.

What Are The Goals, Aspirations, And Needs Of Students In The Americanization Program?

New arrivals to the United States come from many cultural backgrounds, some closely related to the American way of life and others greatly dissimilar. Many will have preconceived opinions about Americans and the American way of life. Some may possess fears and anxieties. Others may be bewildered by the change of environment and will find it difficult to adjust.

At the same time, newcomers also bring with them customs and ideas touching upon many aspects of life. Their country of origin has molded their attitudes and beliefs. Because of previous experience, for example, they may place a different value upon public participation in politics and be suspicious of all public officials; or, within the family unit, they may consider that women should not work but rather stay at home and look after the home and children. Their views about the rearing of children may differ from those commonly accepted here. Moreover, their previous cultural environment may have placed little stress upon education and book learning, thus making their adjustment to the Americanization Program and the classroom situation more difficult. Telephoning, banking, buying insurance, and many other activities may be relatively new to new arrivals.

Despite the many possible differences among students, all will have certain common problems in adjusting to the American way of life, and will need to learn or relearn some of the simplest features of daily existence. The teacher will have to be vigilant in relating the content of his lessons to the common daily needs of the students. For example, almost immediately they require a basic, everyday vocabulary, suited to shopping, looking for a job, finding an apartment, and the many other small but frequently overlooked activities of daily life. It is important that they learn the essential aspects of the geography, history, institutions, and government of our country and of the community in which they live.

What Are Some Important Characteristics Of Adult Learners?

The teaching of adults, whether it be language, history, cultural values, or customs, is different from the teaching of children. Methods and materials will need to be fashioned to suit their maturity level. The content of lessons and the manner of their presentation must be carefully adapted to the varied needs and backgrounds of the students. The teacher will need to be sensitive to the problems individual students face in making adjustments. He will need to realize that although the simple features of the English language or the facts he teaches are the common heritage of the American people, he is teaching adults conditioned by ingrained habits of speaking and of thinking in another language. He will need to show every respect for their dignity, cultural backgrounds, values, and opinions. Each student will need to be helped to speak and think in this new language without losing his sense of cultural identity.

The most effective learning situation is one in which the teacher understands the problems and abilities of his students. All laws of learning indicate that the teacher should start with students where they are and help them progress from that point. It is essential, therefore, that teachers and administrators make every effort to learn what they can about their students.

Some characteristics are generally true of a large number of adult students. Other individual attributes can be discovered through various formal and informal measures of evaluation. For example, it is helpful for a teacher to know at what level of literacy each of his students is, both in his native language and in English. It is useful to know as much as possible about each student's cultural background and to ascertain the student's perception of his own needs and aspirations.

Certain skills, such as mimicking pronunciation, are more readily acquired by younger learners; others are more easily and firmly grasped by adult students. Adults can analyze and they can be guided to see the elements in one situation which are transferable to another. On the other hand, many will find it difficult to learn to make sounds which they have never made before or which, in their language, appeared in different positions in words. For example, a student who has always pronounced the letter "i" like the "ee" in "see," will have to be given repeated and spaced practice in saying and reading words like "hit," "bike," "give," "machine," or "pie."

Adults bring to their learning experience a rich and varied background which can add immeasurably to the teaching situation. It may not be necessary, therefore, to give them numerous initial experiences to develop a conceptual background. They will, however, need to be given:

- The new English words or phrases which express a familiar concept
- The words or phrases which are used as a substitute for a partially dissimilar concept. (e.g., "dinner" consists of different foods in different countries and may be eaten at different times of day)

The adult's motivation is strong and markedly different from that of the young learner. The adult is largely self-motivated. He comes to school because he wants to. Sometimes it may be to enhance his image as a parent; at others, to help his children in school or to increase his work opportunities. He wishes to learn English so that he can adapt more readily to life in his new country and he studies history and citizenship in order to become a citizen. In addition, his motivation may stem from a desire to gain new and enjoyable interests, such as painting, ceramics, or sewing, for the more effective use of his leisure time. Whatever his reasons, his desire to attend school is frequently strong and urgent.

There are other important characteristics of the adult learner to be kept in mind.

- His quest for education occupies, of necessity, a part-time, secondary role in his life. The demands of his job and his family must take precedence.
- The adult comes to school in the evening, usually after a long and tiring day's work. He is often beset by family or financial problems.
- The adult is generally a more critical and questioning student than the younger learner.
- He brings a great number and variety of experiences to the learning situation.
- He comes to school with a highly developed value system.
- In some cases where some aspect of his native value system may be in conflict with customs of his present community, he needs to be helped to evaluate the need for their adaptation.

- He generally has a strong desire to learn.

- He is generally quick to sense if lessons are adequately prepared.

- He may come to class as a social activity. He wants to make friends and have social contacts. He will, therefore, be interested in participating in group experiences with his fellow students.

- He may often, because of prior unfortunate school experiences, lack confidence in his ability to learn new things. He may need constant reassurance by the teacher and by classmates that he can learn and that he can be successful. He may come to school with a fear of failure and even a fear of school.

- He expects to achieve some tangible results in the classroom. He needs to feel that his learning is directed toward meeting his own needs. When studying a new language, for example, it is essential in each lesson that he feel that he has learned something new and that he has consolidated what he had learned before. Without this sense of achievement and awareness of progress, he can easily become dissatisfied and drop out of school.

- The adult is free to leave the class if he is any way dissatisfied.

Factors in the learning situation which may cause him to leave include the subject matter being too easy--or too difficult, incorrect initial placement, and slow progress, so that he lacks encouragement. Possibly he has not achieved a satisfactory relationship with the teacher and/or the other members of his class. Perhaps, most important of all, he will leave because the class program does not seem to be consonant with his own aspirations and goals. In addition, certain factors not directly related to the school situation often force an adult student to drop out of the program. He may leave because of illness--his own or that of a member of his family, the responsibility of family problems, or the pressures from his daytime job. Overtime work, lack of transportation, and inclement weather may also be contributing factors.

How Can The Teacher Use Knowledge Of Student Characteristics To Insure Optimum Learning?

To offset all the forces described above, the teacher needs to be a competent, friendly person who has a genuine interest in adult students. He should realize that each adult is unique, has his own strengths and weaknesses, and that each has his own rate and style of learning. By using a variety of techniques--oral drills, audiovisual aids, challenging written material--by giving judicious praise and encouragement, and by planning many experiences based on the everyday life of the student, the teacher will help each student make progress toward his perceived goals and the goals of the program.

Research studies indicate that normal human beings never lose their ability to learn. With relation to language learning, for example, Charles Fries writes:

> The evidence we have seems to lead to the conclusion that any adult who has learned one language (his native speech) can learn another within a reasonable time if he has sound guidance, proper materials, and if he cooperates thoroughly.[1]

We should be aware, however, that some changes do occur which may affect the adult's pace and rate of learning.

- Visual acuity declines at a fairly steady rate after the age of 20, with a more marked decline between the ages of 40 and 55.
- Auditory acuity reaches its peak before the age of 15 and declines gradually thereafter until about 65.
- As adults grow older, there is a slowing down of muscular skills. (This decline in muscular skills is not, however, accompanied by a corresponding decline in verbal skills.)

Moreover, some adult students will have learned to read from the right to the left side of the page or in columns; some will have learned to use a different script in writing.

The teacher can offset the physical limitations which some adults face by:

- Maintaining good illumination in the classroom
- Keeping blackboards clean and uncluttered
- Writing legibly
- Speaking loudly enough for everyone to hear
- Facing the classroom, making sure that his students can see his face as he speaks, and watching them for signs that they cannot hear or see clearly
- Eliminating distracting noises as much as possible
- Seating students with unusual loss of visual or auditory acuity in appropriate parts of the room
- Using printed material which is in large clear type
- Giving ample practice in reading and writing to those who have learned other systems of reading and writing

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[1] Charles Fries. Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language, p. 9.

- Providing some class activities in which students can learn at their own rate

- Utilizing such equipment as record players and tape recorders which will enable students to receive additional practice in listening to the same materials as often as they need and becoming accustomed to other voices

- Going--literally and figuratively--as slowly or as rapidly as the students' physical and mental abilities will allow

- Tactfully suggesting that the student have his vision or hearing tested

One of the many challenges the teacher will face will be sustaining the interest and attention of the students. Remembering again that classes are generally conducted late in the day when the students are likely to be fatigued, it becomes particularly important that they be involved actively in the lessons and that all available media be used. Recognition and development of the talents and abilities of each participant in the class will give real substance to the American creed which emphasizes the intrinsic worth of the individual.

What Is The Administrator's Role?

Student Recruitment

The following procedures have been found helpful:

- Announcements about the program can be placed on bulletin boards in the school and in the community.

- The elementary and secondary schools in the community can be urged to cooperate by asking their pupils to take announcements home.

- Large signs in English and in the most widely spoken foreign languages in the community can be placed in stores, in service or community agencies, and in places of recreation.

- Foreign language newspapers and radios can be asked to announce dates of registration and other pertinent information.

- Sound trucks manned by foreign-language speakers might be sent into heavily populated non-English-speaking neighborhoods.

- Letters might be sent to persons whose names appear on visa slips received from United States Immigration offices.

- Invitational letters can be sent to former students.

- The cooperation of religious and ethnic organizations can be enlisted.

- Volunteer recruiters might start a door-to-door campaign.

- Adult students currently enrolled can be asked to bring their friends.

Adult students applying for admission will generally fall into the following categories:

- *Recent arrivals to the continental United States without previous English instruction.* These may be literate in their native tongue, completely illiterate, or functionally illiterate; that is, reading and writing at a low primary school level.

- *Recent arrivals with previous English instruction either in their native land or in the continental United States.* These may be literate but may need additional help in English and a knowledge of "Americanization" content. On the other hand, some of them may be functionally illiterate.

- *Recent arrivals with excellent academic background and command of English,* needing only specific preparation for the citizenship examination.

- *Those who have lived in the United States for several months or years,* falling into category 1 or 2 above with relation to language achievement.

Proper Reception of Students

A warm, friendly atmosphere at registration time will dispel much of the fear which some adults may have about returning to a school or perhaps entering one for the first time in their lives. The following procedures are suggested:

- Interpreters might be on hand on registration evenings to direct students to the proper offices or rooms, to help them fill out forms, or to give them information for registering and attending classes.

- Simple signs directing students to registration or interview rooms can be posted in appropriate places. These should be in several native languages (those of the probable student population) and in simple English.

- Students might be given some orientation to the school system (nights of classes, hours, duration of course, curriculum). Orientation may be done through interpreters or through welcome booklets containing captioned pictures. (Some schools have orientation tapes available in several languages. Individual headphones might be provided for clarity.)

- A welcome booklet, perhaps in the language spoken by many of the students, might be prepared and given to each student. (An example of such a booklet will be found in the Appendix.)

Determining Criteria for Student Placement

The program administrator faces several problems in assigning adult students to classes, particularly in large centers. The size of the school, the number of adult students enrolled, and the graduation of classes will determine placement. Where numbers warrant, students might be placed in classes on the basis of one or more of the following criteria:

- Extent of literacy in English
- Schooling in the country of origin
- Schooling in the United States
- Extent of literacy in the native tongue
- Native language spoken

If the number of students enrolled makes such placement possible, adult students speaking the same native language might be placed together in order to lighten the teacher's task. All of these students will have similar pronunciation and grammatical conflicts between their native language and English. Moreover, the teacher will be able more easily to utilize the cultural background of the students as a motivating force. Some schools, on the other hand, prefer to place together students who are more highly literate in their native language whatever that language may be.

When students come to register, it may be desirable to avoid giving formal examinations, either oral or written. Instead, an interviewer, familiar with the organization of classes, determines placement at registration time on the basis of an informal evaluation of the student's needs. More formal methods of evaluation may be undertaken in classes *after* initial placement has been made. These will be outlined below. Test results and teacher observation may then be used to transfer students to more appropriate classes. *Every effort should be made to avoid hurting the students' sensitivities.* More formal diagnostic methods are invaluable, also, in helping the teacher group students within a class.

After the students have been placed in class and the teacher has established a good working relationship with them, a more specific evaluation of their strengths and needs in English can be made. Such tests will enable the teacher to group the students within the class or to provide for individual instruction. In some instances, the original class assignment may be reevaluated.

Some schools prefer to test students, where logical and feasible, both in their native tongue and in English, either orally or through formal tests. The native language tests may be extremely informal (e.g. the students may be asked to complete a questionnaire or read from textbooks). The aims of questioning in the native language are to put the adult student at his ease and to learn something of his background and hopes. The reading test in the student's native language, particularly for languages using the same alphabet as used in English, would help determine his ease and speed in reading as well as his degree of comprehension.

The testing procedure in English may also be of several types or may include a combination of procedures; that is, a student may be asked to complete a questionnaire, take a brief informal or formal test, or answer some questions in an interview. Whatever procedure is used, it would be helpful if notations were made not only with relation to a student's general ability to *listen*, *comprehend*, *speak*, *read*, and *write*, but also with relation to his specific abilities or weaknesses within each communication skill. The questions may be so designed as to indicate the student's knowledge of citizenship content while giving clues to his knowledge of English.

In measuring the student's ability to understand spoken English, the school may wish to devise a scale based on the following:

- No understanding
- Understanding of simple, one-word utterances, such as *sit* and *stand*
- Understanding of short, simple sentences about limited situations, such as the weather, the time, the student's name and address
- Understanding of carefully pronounced sentences about such general topics as the school program, the student's job, home, or family
- Understanding of a connected passage when spoken slowly
- Understanding of unlimited speech in the interview situation
- Understanding of a tape recording, a radio broadcast, or a short filmclip.

Since, as will be emphasized in Chapter 4, everything heard, said, read, or written in English depends on a knowledge of phonology (the sound system), structure (syntax and morphology), and vocabulary, notations within these areas will give teachers important clues for planning lessons geared to the specific needs of the students. For example, within phonology the "test" might elicit comments such as "Cannot distinguish between (i) in *beet* and *bit* or (v) and (b) in *very* and *berry*." Within structure, errors such as "I am here four years" or "I have thirty year" would be noted.

The proper placement of students in classes throughout their stay in the Americanization Program should be a continuing concern. Whenever they are ready, they should be moved to the next higher level of learning offered in the school. The implementation of this suggestion is essential to give students the feeling that they are making progress and to provide a classroom setting in which that progress can be maintained. This will sustain their motivation to attend regularly, to do assignments, and to use every opportunity to practice English outside of class. Every effort should be made to adjust the school's organization to meet the students' emerging needs.

Determining Criteria for Initial Testing

In connection with evaluation prior to initial placement within the school or group placement within the class, there follow several considerations which might serve as guides in preparing or giving initial tests.

- Be aware of the natural shyness and anxiety of students who may be facing a testing situation for the first time.
- Make the testing conditions as favorable as possible. A well-lit room, a comfortable chair, and a pleasant smile will help put the students at ease.
- Give bilingual directions whenever possible. (Students often know the answers but do not understand the directions.)
- Start with simple questions first.
- Give examples of correct responses in any written test.
- Avoid using uncommon vocabulary items, such as saying "tap" when "faucet" is what is meant.
- Make the test as culture free as possible. A student from a torrid climate might not recognize a snowman. Supermarkets are not common in many parts of the world.
- Test knowledge of English and not native intelligence.
- Make passages for listening comprehension as brief as possible so that the test does not become a memory test.
- If tape recordings are used, make sure that voices are clear and that the directions for using the tapes are bilingual or in very simple, clear English.
- Provide for testing latecomers.
- Change the test if teachers' observations do not seem to correlate with initial test results.

- Prepare uniform tests when there is more than one class at any level in one community.

Training of Teachers

The administrator or supervisor uses many techniques to help all teachers--new or experienced--grow professionally. The following suggestions might be useful in giving such help.

- Arrange for teachers to visit other schools to observe teaching techniques and to note desirable program features.

- Plan demonstration lessons and arrange for *constructive* evaluation of these lessons.

- Encourage teachers to give demonstrations, to attend conferences within and outside the local school system, to speak at faculty or community meetings, to create and experiment with new materials, to plan a variety of experiences for their students, to adapt existing textbooks to various reading or ability levels, to discuss common problems, and to share successful procedures.

- Visit classes in session and follow the visits by informal meetings with the teachers, offering one or two positive suggestions.

- Make every effort to have lesson plans and other instructional materials cooperatively prepared by a group of teachers with the understanding that these will be modified and adapted according to student needs.

- Prepare, particularly in larger schools, a regularly distributed newsletter containing such items as résumés of current books or articles in the field, notices of professional meetings and organizations, and contents of appropriate journals which illustrate desirable practices.

- Utilize the talents of personnel from community and educational agencies to speak to teachers.

- Help plan for exhibits of instructional materials.

- Provide a professional library and make sure that it is kept up to date.

- Hold staff meetings regularly and inservice workshop sessions on matters of common concern.

- Make available a teacher resource center for Americanization materials containing materials related to such topics as those listed at the top of page 15. (Students might assist in collecting appropriate materials.)

  - Resources in the social studies (pictures, maps, books, graphs, and other visual aids)
  - Culture and mores of students (including as many backgrounds as possible)
  - Methods of giving insight into American cultural values
  - Instructional aids prepared by Federal, State, or community agencies

- Encourage the use of audiovisual aids.

- Make sure that materials are made easily available to teachers and that a systemic procedure for sharing them has been established.

- Gather or help prepare useful instructional materials, such as sample lesson plans, reading materials at various levels, programmed materials--commercial or teacher prepared--and worksheets for individual students, latecomers, less able learners, gifted learners, and so on.

- Provide teachers with space to store their materials.

Developing the Curriculum

The administrator's or supervisor's role in curriculum preparation and evaluation is a crucial one. Student motivation and achievement, as well as teacher success, depend heavily on the curriculum he helps plan for use in the classes. The following is a suggested list of the lines along which the administrator or supervisor might develop such a curriculum.

- Base the curriculum on the recommended, state-prepared course of study.

- Modify the curriculum as necessary in order to:
  - Utilize the students' backgrounds, interests, and abilities
  - Start with students where they are with relation to the community in which they live and to their knowledge of English

- Provide for intraclass grouping and/or individualized instruction (including tutorial or corrective help for students who need it).

- Provide a student testing program which will help insure success and status for each student.

- Help make each student a functioning, participating member of his community.

- Provide classroom drills and educational experiences which duplicate the real-life, everyday communication situations in which the student will find himself.

- Correlate all areas of learning (social studies, science, arithmetic, English, health, music, art).

- Evaluate and modify the curriculum regularly.

Effecting Cooperation Between the School and Other Community Agencies

A school cannot be an island unto itself. The administrator will need to join forces with the many agencies which make an impact on adult students. Such interaction cannot help but result in a more effective program. The following is a list of benefits that may result from communication and cooperation with other agencies and organizations.

- A basic philosophy may be developed.

- Information about roles, procedures, curriculum, materials, and personnel may be exchanged.

- Cooperatively prepared social and educational activities may be held.

- Personnel of agencies such as the Fire or Police Departments may be recruited to speak to students.

- An increased awareness of the facilities and programs of each of the agencies may be developed.

Many schools in cooperation with other community agencies have found it desirable to prepare a resource booklet which is distributed to each student. The contents of the booklet may be the subject of numerous class discussions. A sample of such a booklet will be found in the Appendix.

All facets of the school program will benefit from continuous close scrutiny and modification, whenever necessary, from administrators, supervisors, teachers, community leaders, and the students themselves. The effects of the various facets of the program on the students and on the community may be assessed through meetings with interested personnel, students, and employers; through questionnaires; or through direct teacher observation. Some questions that may be asked are:

- Is the recruitment procedure adequate and efficient? Is it reaching those students in the community who would profit from the program?

- Is the curriculum well-balanced, flexible, and functional? Is it in harmony with the program's objectives?

- Is there provision for many schoolwide activities in which students can engage?

- Is there provision for out-of-school visits, trips, and recreational activities in which students can participate?

- Is the evaluation of students' progress of continuous concern to teachers, administrators, and supervisors?

- Is there an effective, continuous, inservice training program for teachers?

- Is recordkeeping simple and efficient?

Additional Administrative and/or Supervisory Procedures

Provision might be made for adult students to:

- Talk with community leaders and public officials

- Receive invitations to homes of community members

- Demonstrate their success in audience situations (other class programs)

- Receive certificates of attendance and achievement

- Participate in graduation and end of term exercises

Bilingual community members might be invited to address the students. They may also be used as resources for the teachers in learning some basic expressions in the students' native tongue. They might also indicate possible sources of linguistic or cultural conflict as a guide to teacher or school planning. Native festivals and commemorative exercises may be enjoyed by the school in cooperation with community ethnic groups.

What Are The Various Disciplines Which Contribute To The Americanization Program?

In order to achieve the goals outlined in the preceding section, the program for adult learners should represent a fusion of the science and art of education and related disciplines. As a science, it draws upon the research and findings of various disciplines for its underlying philosophy, method, and approach. As this handbook attempts to show, the teaching of English and citizenship derives many of its premises and principles from the sciences of linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology.

Part of teaching is the art of drawing upon one's inner resource. Only from within the teacher can emerge the creativity, energy, enthusiasm, dedication to the attainment of a goal, and, most especially, the love and respect for his fellow human beings which will transform the well-ordered, scientifically planned teaching lesson into a warm, pleasurable, shared experience for teacher and students. Teaching is, thus, an integration of art and science, both mutually enriching the program, each reinforcing the other for full realization.

Let us examine briefly some of the principles of those sciences which make the most significant contributions to the teaching of English and citizenship to adults. Application of these principles will be found throughout the handbook.

Important Sociological Concepts

Activities in the program should provide for increasing social interaction among the students. They should be encouraged to discuss ideas, agree, disagree, observe the amenities of democratic discussion, and participate as listeners and speakers in a variety of social situations. They will need to be given the words, patterns, or expressions which are *appropriate* in the normal, everyday situations in which people of our culture interact. For example, in India, the expression, "Excuse me," is used only when a sin has been committed. Here it is used when asking for directions or when stepping on someone's toes. In other words, students need help to comprehend different shades and degrees of meaning in courtesy expressions and the specific social contexts in which they are normally used.

Students should also be given information about the opportunities our society offers to all its members for upward mobility. In this connection, they should be motivated toward furthering their education and toward acquiring the skills needed for advancement. Moreover, educational activities should be designed to help each individual student make a personal adjustment to his new environment and to play an active role in the community in which he lives. The *integration* of each student into his new community may be considered a major goal of our Program. Personal-social integration implies guiding each person to accept a new language and culture. It means helping each student retain his sense of personal cultural identity while guiding him toward the gradual acceptance and use of new linguistic and cultural patterns. These should permit him not only to fit into, but also to become an active, functioning member of his new environment.

The Role Of Anthropology

Anthropology is also important to the program. Two of its concepts deserve emphasis here. One is that *culture* does not refer merely to the music, literature, and arts of a people. It includes the sum total of the customs, mores, values, and artifacts of a community. The second is that there are no people without culture, although there are differences in cultures because of geography, history, and other factors. All people are born, speak, walk, raise children, eat, seek status, and have faith. Fundamentally, all have the same basic needs and aspirations.

It is important in teaching, therefore, to focus attention on the similarities among human beings in various societies rather than to dwell on the differences. Students should be made to feel that they come from societies which are as good as any other and that any difference does not mean "better than" or "inferior to" but only "different from."

Anthropologists' studies have underscored that language is the central feature of culture. Words and language patterns in the native language often determine the way in which people can talk about any experience. Students who come from an environment which lacks certain phenomena (a subway, for example) might have to be given many experiences to comprehend the *concept* before they can learn how to use its word symbol in communication. Students who come from a culture where there are four words for *you*, with concomitant differences in verb form depending on the person addressed or referred to, will need to hear, talk about, and participate in many social situations in order to realize that English has only one form of "you" with one corresponding verb and to use the form easily and habitually.

The Role Of Linguistics In Communication Development

The last several decades have witnessed a tremendous upsurge of activity among language scientists--persons who investigate and describe languages and analyze the nature and function of human speech. While they do not as yet have all the answers to questions about language, many of their conclusions have already pointed to new directions in teaching. Some of their research has emphasized that:

- All normal people in the world can speak. No group of people without a spoken language has ever been discovered.

- Spoken language is universal. However, although all normal human beings in a community understand and speak well enough to carry out their everyday activities, many of these same people cannot read and write.

- Every language in the world is sufficiently complete to fulfill the needs of its speakers.

- Writing systems originated long after spoken language existed. To the best of our knowledge, man and spoken language developed simultaneously.

For these reasons, *spoken* language is considered primary. It is primary, too, in the sense that people learn to speak their native language several years before they learn to read and write it--if they learn this at all. Writing is considered a *secondary* system, derived from speech.

Linguistics has evolved a definition of language every word of which has significance for teachers: Language is a *system* of *arbitrary* vocal symbols which permit *all* people who have *learned* the system to *communicate* and to *interact.*

Every language operates within its own *system*--that is, within its own recurring patterns or arrangements which are meaningful to its speakers. Sounds, used to form words in speech utterances, are always arranged in particular ways or designs which convey the same meaning to all speakers of the language. When we hear the words "the girl," we know the speaker is talking of one girl and of a girl previously mentioned or pointed out. "The girls," on the other hand, conveys the meaning of more than one girl. A "t" sound in "walked" at the end of the base verb "walk" indicates past time to all English speakers. Word order is an important part of the system of English. Compare the two sentences: "The dog bit the boy." "The boy bit the dog." The forms of the words are exactly the same, but there is a world of difference in meaning.

Another feature of the system is that, in English, adjectives do not change their form to "agree" with nouns. For example, "The boy is tall"/"The boys are tall;" "The girl is tall"/"The girls are tall." In the native languages of the students, changes may occur because of gender (masculine or feminine) or because of number (singular or plural).

A word in any language has meaning only as it is understood and accepted by all speakers of that language as *representing* a particular object, attribute, or action. For example, the words "horse," "bread," "talk," and "red" have no intrinsic meaning; that is, they are purely arbitrary symbols formulated and used by speakers of English to denote specifically an animal, a food item, an action, and a color. Speakers of French, German, and Spanish, for example, have different words to designate the very same objects, colors, and action.

The words *communicate* and *interact* as used in the definition signify to hear and then respond or react (by carrying out directions, for example) to the spoken word. They imply, too, the ability to talk about something that happened in the past, or is happening at the present time, or may happen at some time in the future.

Communication through the use of the spoken language involves understanding and reacting to what someone says. The response or reaction may be to make a statement, to ask a question, to agree or to disagree, to carry out a direction, to answer a question in the affirmative or in the negative with a long answer or with a short answer (e.g., "Are you going to the movie tomorrow?" "Yes." or "Yes, I am.") or to use an idiom--a formula--or set expression in the language (e.g., the response to "Thank you."--a formula--might be "You're welcome."--also a formula).

Language is learned behavior. All normal people are born with the ability to make sounds, but the sounds take on shape and meaning only through constant reinforcement and repetition. Those sounds are learned which produce responses on the parts of others.

Native speakers of a language are not conscious of each sound or word they say or of the sequence of the sounds or words. People are conscious primarily of the ideas or thoughts they are trying to convey. The stringing together of sounds in certain positions conforming to the patterns of the language system is generally unconscious and habitual by the time the native speaker is 6 or 7 years old.

The ingrained habits of one's native language (of making certain sounds or of placing sounds in certain positions) often cause serious conflict or interference with the learning of a new language. For example, although similar sounds may exist in one's native tongue, they may be found in different positions in the new language. Thus, a Spanish-speaking person learning English will find it difficult to pronounce certain consonant clusters at the *beginning* of a word since he may be accustomed to pronouncing these consonants between vowels. The word "school" will require much repetitive practice since (sk) is never found in initial position in Spanish. A German will continue substituting an "f" sound for "v," saying "fery" instead of "very." An Italian will add a vowel ending to words ending with a consonant. A person whose native language is Polish will experience difficulty in pronouncing words like "nag" and "rag" saying instead, "nack" and "rack." The same problem arises in learning English grammar. The form of words (morphology) and the order or sequence of words (the syntax) are important in English. "Milk chocolate," for example, is not the same as "chocolate milk.") Word order of this kind may have no importance or mean something quite different in the student's native language.

The adult student generally has lost the child's ability to imitate pronunciation easily. An older person learning a second language, however, has several advantages. He can be helped to observe, analyze, and focus attention on the recurring elements in the language he is studying. He can arrive at generalizations and thus create new sentences *by analogy* with the patterns he has learned. Although he may no longer be able to hear or produce a sound by imitation only, as can a child, the adult can be told the reason for his difficulty and be helped to produce the correct sound.

Applying Certain Principles Of Psychology

While the science of linguistics plays a key role in language teaching, the psychological principles which underlie all learning should not be neglected. The branch of psychology known as learning theory offers many useful concepts.

- Learning takes place when content is related to the background, needs, and experiences of the learner. The teacher of English to adults needs familiarity with the main features of the native language of the majority of his students. Such knowledge gives the teacher a springboard for understanding students' language problems and for preparing drills which can help to overcome them. Moreover, the teacher needs some knowledge of the cultural background of the students as well as of their probable experiences in the community in which they are now living in order to clarify new concepts. It is important, too, that the teacher ascertain the vocational aspirations of his students for clues to the individualization of specific instruction. He may, for instance, assign specialized readings or give students the language or information needed in the work activity of their interest.

- The sequence of learning is important. Material for presentation should be carefully graded to proceed from the known to the unknown and from the simple to the more difficult.

- Many repetitions are needed to help students develop the habit of using appropriate sound and sound sequences. The learning of any skill takes place in proportion to meaningful practice in that skill.

- Habit formation depends on focusing attention on the pattern to be learned, on presenting numerous examples, on attentive repetition of that pattern, on omitting any possible "exceptions" to the pattern being taught, and on helping students derive the generalization or "rule" from numerous examples.

- Repetitions should be spaced at increasingly longer intervals. Any language or cultural concept which has been taught should be reintroduced in subsequent lessons. In teaching any new item, it might be desirable to adhere to a sequence such as the following: *Introduce it in one session. Teach it again* during the *following* session. (Vary the procedure or the materials to avoid boredom but teach essentially the same item.) Allow about two sessions to elapse and reintroduce the item in a different type of communication situation. Allow four or five sessions to elapse and introduce the item again *in combination with* other items you have taught in the intervening sessions or in previous units.

- Learning is favored when meaningful association is established between sound and concept. Meaningful association of sound and concept can be brought about through the use of such devices as pictures, real objects, gestures, and dramatization as words are pronounced.

- Understanding of the place and function which individual language elements occupy in communication promotes learning. Students need help in describing and verbalizing recurring patterns such as, "We add a (z) sound when we talk of more than one boy. Even more important, they need insight into the function of various language items and skills within the broader communication aspects of listening, understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. For example, students might be encouraged to dramatize situations in which many features of language are exemplified, to ask and answer questions on passages they have read and activities they have dramatized, and to produce written material related to varied aspects of the program.

- Knowledge that a response is correct reinforces the learning of that response. Words of praise, asking another student to repeat the previous student's correct response, and correcting worksheets immediately after they are given are some ways of assuring a student that his response is correct.

- Transfer of learning is not generally automatic. The teacher can help students make any logical or feasible transfer from one language feature or skill to another by pointing out their *similar* elements.

- People learn in different ways and at different rates. A multi-sensory approach--listening, looking, saying, seeing, smelling, touching, moving about, writing, and reading--will help ensure that the different learning modes and rates of individuals are taken into account.

Also helpful are activities in each lesson that make provision for students to work at their own pace either in small subgroups or individually. These will allow all students to feel they are progressing and will help create a happier classroom atmosphere.

CHAPTER 2

THE ENGLISH-LANGUAGE CURRICULUM CONTENT

Why Is The Spiral Approach Desirable?

Particularly in classes spanning wide levels of literacy, it may be desirable to use a *spiral* approach in teaching both the linguistic and cultural facts. Since human social relations depend on language communication and since true language involves mental exchange of meaning by use of organized abstract symbols, class grouping may be helpful. Each group, as a distinguishable unit of reality, has qualities of its own that differ from those of its members and from those of other groups. This grouping can be based on similarity of culture, background, interests, abilities, and motivation. People naturally tend to gravitate to one group rather than to another. The teacher's responsibility will be to observe constantly and unobtrusively so as to help each student and each group of students to interact and assume as many roles as possible for social and intellectual enrichment. Thus, in beginning to treat any topic, the teacher would present only the most basic, elementary facts at first, adding more facts and presenting more complex patterns of language as the lessons continue. Thus, each successive lesson will present material that is new and more complicated than before, while still carrying over some less complicated material from the previous lesson. The following sample discussion of the topic "Looking for a Job" demonstrates the spiral approach.

Beginner's Level

"I need a job."

"I was a (carpenter) in my country."

"I'd like to be a (carpenter) here."

"Where can I find a job?"

Intermediate Level

"I need a job."

"I'd like to get a job as a (carpenter)."

"I was a (carpenter) in my country."

"What are the requirements here?"

"I can (plane) wood; I can (polish) furniture, etc."

"Where can I find a job?"

Advanced Level

"I'd like to get a job as a (carpenter)."

"I'm going to look in the newspaper for a better job."

"I've had 5 years of experience as a (carpenter)."

"I consider myself a master carpenter."

"What are the requirements here?"

"Do I have to belong to a union?"

The above sentences demonstrate the increasing complexity in linguistic content as the program proceeds from the beginner's to the advanced level. For example, there is more emphasis on previous experience, the use of newspapers in finding employment opportunities, the realization of the individual's self worth and his raised level of aspiration, and his awareness of unions in industry. Here it is important to reaffirm that the selection of content can be made only by the individual teacher on the basis of his intimate knowledge of his students, their backgrounds, and their possible experiences in the community.

What Might The Linguistic Content Of The Curriculum Include?

As has been noted elsewhere, the teachers in the Americanization Program may find themselves teaching students at all levels of English learning, from absolute beginners to those who may have a good grasp of structure and vocabulary. All will probably need help in learning the features of the English language which will enable them to speak more fluently, to be understood more readily, and, in turn, to understand others.

It is important, therefore, that teachers for whom English is the native language and who may not have studied phonetics, word forms, or word sequences, familiarize themselves with some of the basic features of the English language, since they will have to teach these to their students.

What Are Some Basic Features Of The English Language?

Communication is a process involving the transfer of meaning from one person to another. The elements of the English language which carry meaning are:

- The situational context
- Intonation

- Grammatical structure

- Formulas of the language (i.e., set expressions such as "How are you?")

This section will be concerned primarily with grammatical structure (e.g., with the forms of words like "walk," "walked;" "kind," "unkind;" "boy," "boys;" and with their sequence in sentences).

It was noted previously that language is an arbitrary system of vocal symbols which permits the speakers of that language to communicate and to interact. By "system" was meant the *recurring* patterns or arrangements of sounds and words which convey meaning to the persons familiar with the language. These patterns are so essential for meaning that they are usually given priority over vocabulary in teaching. While the principle recurring patterns of language are generally learned by a normal native speaker before he is 8 years old, he keeps adding to his vocabulary as long as he lives. An individual's grasp of the vocabulary items of his language is never fixed. This is true not only because new words are continuously added to the language, but because vocabulary development depends on schooling, home backgrounds, reading preferences, work, and numerous other factors.

In teaching beginners, therefore, it is more important to help them learn the basic sentences and patterns of language than to give them many words which may have little meaning unless they are used with other words in clear situational contexts. An example of such a word is "face." What does it mean alone? In the following sentences--"Face front." "She has a pretty face." "The two faces of the building are different." "He won't face the truth."--the word "face" takes on various meanings because of its use in different contexts.

What Are Some Important Considerations In Teaching Language Patterns?

Here follow several principles which the teacher may find useful in teaching language patterns:

- Start with simple, demonstrable items before proceeding to more abstract or complex features of language. To illustrate, the classroom situation affords natural opportunities to teach patterns of self-identification ("What's your name?" "Where are you from?" "What's this?") related to the actual routines, activities, and objects of the classroom. Directives such as "Say," "Repeat," and "Go to the board" may be among the first language items taught. These may be given first in the students' native language if the teacher is familiar with the equivalent expressions.

- Select patterns for beginning teaching on the basis of their greatest utility in manipulating other language items. The statement pattern and the question pattern "This is" and "What's this?" which can be used with many nouns, fall into this category.

- Where possible, select language items for beginning learners because of their similarity with language items in their native tongue, *provided* the items have wide utility in English and their form follows a well-defined, easily perceived pattern. Following are examples:

  "Where do you live?"

  "When do you eat lunch?"

  "Where do you eat lunch?"

- Here the position of the interrogative word and the interrogative verb form with "do" remain constant while meeting the criterion of utility.

- Help students to understand, through listening, repeating, reading, and writing the basic patterns in a variety of communications activities, that English has a well-defined system of word form and word order.

- Strive for student's habitual, spontaneous control of the basic patterns so that the student can increasingly give his full attention to the idea and meaning he is trying to convey.

- Make students aware of the fact that there may be more than one way of expressing the same idea (e.g. *Where do you live?* or *What is your address?)*. However, only the form most commonly used in normal speech (*Where do you live?*) should be taught. Students will understand *What is your address?* but will be required to ask and and respond only to *Where do you live?*

- Teach language patterns within a cultural situation. For example, in teaching expressions such as "to the right" or "to the left," it would be desirable to present them in the context of giving someone directions (e.g. "Walk two blocks, turn to the right. At the next corner, turn to the left.").

- Keep in mind that, since language learning is cumulative, the same forms and sequences of forms will be met again at later levels of learning. Do not wait, therefore, until all students have complete mastery of a given pattern before proceeding to another one. A difficult pattern can be reviewed and reinforced during the teaching of a new pattern on which it is based or with which it can normally be used.

- Do not attempt to adhere to a sequence of pattern introduction in a rigidly fixed order. After the basic, most widely useful, and most easily demonstrable patterns have been introduced and practiced, the criterion for the introduction of additional patterns might be based on answers to the following questions:

Into which experimental situation will this pattern fit best? For example, in a food shopping unit, it would be logical to introduce "How many?" and "How much?" In a clothing buying situation, the pattern "What size (color, material)?" might be useful. In a job interview situation, "I'd like" and "Would you like" might clearly fit.

Do students know the patterns on which this new pattern is based? For example, before teaching colors ("It's a white hat."), students should know a pattern such as "It's a hat (coat, etc.)." Before teaching words such as "always," "never," "usually" (called "frequency words"), students should be able to say with reasonable facility, patterns such as: "I get up." "I eat." "I work." and they should know how to tell time and the days of the week.

Is the pattern one which students can use in many normal everyday situations? Something like, "What would you like?" is more useful than the pattern "Which would you prefer?" The utility of the pattern for your adult students and the frequency of use in oral communication activities should always be of primary concern.

- Explain and provide practice in other basic, common patterns as they are met in listening and reading. The extent and intensity of practice, however, should be determined by criteria such as those listed above. For example, a difficult pattern, found only occasionally in the reading material, can be explained briefly, but it need not be practiced by the students for several weeks or months. Indeed, many patterns met in reading may remain part of the students' passive or recognitional knowledge and need never be taught intensively for active use.

- Since pronunciation carries meaning, it is important that students learn how to say all patterns with *normal* pronunciation, intonation, rhythm, and pauses.

- All students would profit from the repetition phases of the lesson on structure. Only the students who need intensive drill on a language, however, should be asked to participate in some of the other types of language drills listed in the next chapter. In the practice segment of the lesson, as in many others, it is often helpful to prepare material and classroom activities at more than one learning level.

Function words are relatively few in number. (There are only about two hundred of them in the English language.) They have no real meaning as do *content words* such as *card, pencil, table, walk, red,* and *slowly,* but they are crucial in helping to relate parts of sentences to each other and in giving clues to structural meaning. For example, *the* and *a* are function words. *The* means a definite thing; *a* indicates that it is one of a larger category. *How* and *when* are function words. *How* asks about manner; *when* asks about time.

Because function words are few in number but of great importance, the students need to learn their uses and forms thoroughly. Function words include prepositions, auxiliaries (will, have), modals (may, can, must, should), determiners (the, a, some, each, every), and conjunctions (while, before, since, whenever).

In the list which follows, the pattern for intensive study is italicized. The part of the sentence in which substitutions will be made will be set in parentheses. Thus, the teacher can give carefully graded, sequential practice with other vocabulary items which can be used in the same pattern. For example, in the list, the item might read simply "I'm a (clerk)."

In addition, of course, the students will need to learn the other pronouns, appropriate verb forms, pluralizations, and so on. For example:

"*I'm* (a student)."

"*You're* (a student)."

"*Miss X* (is the teacher)."

"*We're* (students)."

To illustrate further, while the only item on the list may be "The ________ is in the ________." the teacher may substitute other prepositions such as *on, under, near,* and *far from,* in order to provide further practice and develop further understanding. Supplementary items using *to, for, at,* and so on, in simple patterns may also be added.

Below is a list of suggested English patterns for intensive study. Blanks or ( ) permit the instructor to make substitutions appropriate for his group and teaching situation. Example: *I'm going to study* (later). or *He asked me where I* ________. Thus, by substituting *now, here, today,* and other suitable words, the teacher can give sequential practice which can be used in the same pattern. Notice that the contracted form--normal in speaking--is taught first. Italics indicate the pattern to be studied.

Suggested English Patterns For Beginners

What's your name?	My *name's* ____________________. *It's* ____________________.
Where do you live?	*I live in* (New York). I live *at* (44 Elm Street).
Where are you from?	*I'm* from (Cuba).
What's this?	*It's* a ____________________.

	This is a ________.
What's that?	*It's* a ________. *That's* a ________.
What are these?	*They're* ________. *These are* ________. *Those are* ________.
This is (Mrs. Smith). *She's a* student in the class.	
What are you?	*I'm* a ________.
Are you a ________?	*Yes, I am.* *No, I'm not.* *I'm not* a ________. *He isn't* a ________ either.
I have a (book).	*Do you have a* ________? *Do you have the* ________?
Do you have *any* (children)?	*Yes, I do.* *No, I don't.* *I don't have a (son).*
What time is it?	*It's* (ten). *It's* half past (ten). *It's* a quarter to (ten). *It's* a quarter past (ten). *It's* (noon).
How old (is he)?	*He's* (fourteen).
He's (tall)	*He's not* (short).
They're (tall).	*They're not* (short).
It's (yellow). *The pencil is* yellow.	
What color is the ________?	
What color is (this)?	*It's a* (yellow) (pencil).
What color are (these)?	*They're* (yellow) (pencils).
It's a (small) (box).	
Do you need a ________?	*Yes, I do.* *No, I don't.*
What do you (need)?	I (need) a ________ and a ________.

Where is (she)?	
Who is (he)?	
How is (he)?	
Where is it?	*It's here.* *It's there.*
The ________ is *in* the ________.	
I'm a ________ *but* he's a ________.	
I *always (get up) at (six).*	
I'm (read*ing*) *now.*	
I'm going to study (later).	
Please (read).	
Let's (read).	*Let's not* (read).
Don't read.	
There's a ________ on the (chair).	
There are ________ in the (room).	
How many (chairs) are there?	
I come to school at eight.	
I eat (lunch) at (noon).	
Do you have any books?	*Yes, I do. I have* (one).
I have *some books.*	
I have *four of them.*	
I need *a (pound) of butter.*	
He's (taller).	
He's (taller) than (Mr.)_____.	
She's the youngest.	
She's the youngest of the group.	
It's more (interesting).	

It's most (interesting).

Give me a (book).

He gave her a book.

(Everyone) is hungry.

Suggested Patterns for Intermediate Students

Whose (book) is this?

It's *my (book).*

It's (mine).

This (book) is *(his). It's not* (hers).

Which book is (yours)? *(This)* one.

The *(woman's) (hat)* is green.

It's (green), *isn't it?*

I *(wanted)* a (book).

Did you (want) a (book)? *Yes, I did. No, I didn't.*

I *didn't (want)* the book.

What do you do? (referring to work)

I'm a carpenter. *So (am I).*

I'm a (butcher) *but* (he's) a (carpenter).

What *did you do (yesterday)?* I (went) (to the movies).

Where (are you) going now?

I'm going to (work).

I'll (be back) *in* an (hour).

I'll be back *at* (seven o'clock).

I'll be back *in* (September).

I'll be back next week.

How are you going?	By (bus).

I (saw) (him) (an hour) *ago.*

What are you going *to be?*

I'm going to be (a doctor).

Please *say* that *again.*

Please *tell us* the (story).

Were you (ill)? *Yes, I was. No, I wasn't.*

Who went to the (movies)? (Mary) did. Or: (Mary) *and* (John) did.

(Mary) went to the (store) and (John) went to the (movies).

Call me *up,* please.

Put on your (coat). Or: *Put* your (coat) *on.*

(Mr. Smith) is a (student). (Mr. Norris) is a student, *too.* Or:
(Mrs. Norris) is *also* a student. Or: *So is* (Mrs. Norris).

I *don't like* spinach. My wife doesn't like it *either.* Or:
Neither does my wife.

How much is a pound of (butter)?

How much are (four) (chairs)?

These cost less than those.

What kind of (butter) do you (want)?

How tall are you? I'm (five) feet (eleven).

Suggested Patterns for Advanced Students

Can you be there? *Yes, I can. No, (I) can't.*

I can be (there) (at [nine]).

I *(should) (eat). I (must) (eat). I (have to) (eat). I (ought to) (eat).*

May I have the ________.

She's (pretty), *isn't she?*

I *can't (work), can I?*

I *can* (work), can't I?

Will you come with me, please.

Won't you come in?

What a (tall) (building).

Look at that tall building!

The *(lady) with the (blond) (hair)* is (French).

If I learn English, *I (can) (get)* a better job.

I'll (study) *until* you get here.

I'll (dress) *while* you (eat).

How long is the *(room)?*

How long have you been waiting?

I've been here *for* an hour.
I've been here *since* (Monday).
I've been here *since* (ten o'clock).

Have you *ever* been here? No, I have never been here. I've *just* been there.

How far is it?

How much does it cost?

How much do (they) *cost?*

I know what you (need).

I don't know what (you) (want).

(He) asked (me) where I (worked).

He told (me) to (go).

If (he) *gets* money, (he) *spends* it.

If I *get* the (money), *I'll* (buy) it.

If I had the money, *I'd buy it.* *I'd buy it, if I had the money.*

If you see (Mr. Norris), *will you give* him (the book)?

Thank you *for (finding)* it.

What are you interested in? I'm *interested in studying.*

I want *to (see) (you).*

I *ought to go* there.	
He (speaks) *too (slowly)*.	
She (drives) *very (slowly)*.	
I'll do that *as quickly* as (possible).	
Why can't you come *with me?*	*Because* I have to study.
Why are you studying that?	*To* learn.
They *called him* the *(captain)*.	
The house *was built in* (1840).	
It *was built by* the *Fitch* family.	
Would you like some (coffee)?	No, *I'd rather* have (tea).
You *shouldn't be* (eating) so much.	
I *used to be* thin but I'm fat now.	
You'd better not (eat) *so* much.	
It's *fun to (eat)*.	*(Eating)* is fun.
You (eat) *too much*.	
The (soup) is *too* (hot)!	*I can't drink it.*
I think the (soup) is too (hot).	
I hope the (meat) is (not overcooked).	
(Mary) is *as (tall) as* (Jane).	
(Mary) *looks like* her (sister).	
This (coat) is *too small for* (Mary).	
I'm *so tired that* I can't (study).	
I *painted* the (bookcase) *brown*.	
I need a *deposit slip*.	
The boy *selling* the (newspapers) is my (son).	
The *(woman) who* (came) in is a (student).	

The (woman) *I came* to see is not here *yet*.

The man *whose (brother)* I know (works) here.

The man *about whom* you were (speaking) just (came) in.

I *told (her) to be ready* (on time).

I told (her) not to be *(late)*.

I've never seen (him) *before*.

(He) *says (he's)* (tired).

He *said* he *was* tired.

Who is he? I know *who he is*. I *don't know who* he is.

I hurt *myself*.

They speak to *each other*.

He's *going to cut himself if* he's not careful.

You won't get that job *unless* you learn English.

Unless you (study), you won't (pass the course).

You must go to work *whether or not* you're tired.

You don't (study) *enough*.   You should try *hard to learn*.

What Other Language Features Might Be Taught?

In addition to the basic sentence patterns listed above, students will need help in learning to use *numbers*, *the days of the week*, and expressions commonly termed *formulas;* that is, set patterns of language used normally in particular communication situations. "How do you do?" is an example of a formula.

The following is a list of such expressions which may be taught as they are needed within the citizenship topics or as they appear in reading materials; or the teacher might plan specific English language lessons designed to aid students in communicating their needs, wants, or desires. This, of course, is only a suggested list. Other expressions may be added as the need arises.

Greetings and leavetakings:	Good morning. See you later. Hi. Hello.
Expressions of age:	How old are you? I'm ________.

Courtesy expressions:	Thank you. You're welcome. Pardon me. Excuse me. I beg your pardon. Could you tell me how ________?
Forms of address:	Mr., Mrs., Miss, Dr., Judge, Rabbi, Father
General expressions:	Of course. Certainly. I'm sorry. Not at all. I don't mind.
Numbers (as needed)	
Days of the week	
Months of the year	
Expressions of time:	hour, half hour, quarter hour, time before and after the hour
Weather:	It's raining. How's the weather? What's the weather like?
Seasons of the year	

At intermediate and advanced levels, expressions which imply agreement and polite disagreement: I think so, I don't think so, I'm sure of it, I'm not sure, I can't agree.

Still other items needed for understanding oral speech and printed materials, and eventually for speaking and writing, are derived words (words adding a prefix or a suffix), noun-noun combinations in which word order changes meaning completely, and two-word verbs. These might be taught as they are heard or met in reading or they might be presented more formally in language lessons for intermediate or advanced students.

Here are some examples of derived words:

- boy, boy*ish*, boy*ishly*, boy*ishness*, boy*hood*
- kind, kind*ly*, kind*ness*, *un*kind
- able, abl*y*, ab*ility*, *un*able, *dis*abled
- live, *a*live, live*ly*, *en*live*n*
- love, love*ly*, lov*able*
- agree, *dis*agree, agree*able*, *dis*agree*able*, agree*ment*, *dis*agree*ment*
- nation, nation*al*, *inter*nation*al*
- plan, plan*ning*, *pre*plan

The usual method of presentation for derived words is to pronounce each word in isolation and then in its derived form, noting occasions when the pronunciation changes with the addition of a suffix or a prefix (as in *able* and *ability*, where the sound of *a* changes). It is important, too, that students learn that a prefix or suffix often indicates a change in the word class or part of speech. For example, the teacher could point out that from *agree*, a verb, the noun *agreement* is derived. Later on, when the spelling of derived words is being taught more intensively, the teacher might deal with more complicated procedures, such as the changing of *y* to *i* before adding the suffix *ly* (as in *happily* and *easily*), and the doubling of final consonants (as in *referred* and *planning*). There are some noun-noun combinations whose meanings depend on word order and which may thus need extra practice. Some examples are:

- Bus station and station bus
- Armchair and chair arm
- Pocket watch and watch pocket
- Horse race and race horse

The English language abounds with two-word verbs, some of which are separable and some of which are not. Intensive practice, using many different drills, may be needed before students can be expected to use these correctly. Here are just a few.

- *Put out* the light. *Put* the light *out*.
- *Take out* the meat. *Take* the meat *out*.
- *Take up* the package. *Take* the package *up*.
- *Hand in* your paper. *Hand* your paper *in*.
- *Call on* Mary tomorrow.
- *Wait for* Harry.

Some two-word verbs are separable in some contexts but not in others. For example, one could say either "He ran up the flag," or "He ran the flag up." But "He ran up the street," is the only possible phrasing.

CHAPTER 3

THE AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP CURRICULUM CONTENT

What Might The Citizenship Content Include?

If students are to make an effective adjustment to their new land, they will need information about the school, the community, the customs, and the values of America. They should understand the major events and trends in American history which have helped to create the America of today. Not all of this information can be given at once--nor should it be. A selection must be made in terms of the needs which newcomers to an English-speaking community generally face. In this handbook, priority has been given to the information that will enable the student to talk about himself, his home, his family, and his immediate community. Later, after it becomes clear that the student knows his way around in the community, the teacher may move to a consideration of the values of American society, to the development of America, to the contributions of previous immigrants, and to a discussion of America today. Thus, the subdivisions of this section are as follows:

- Information about the School and Community
- Specific Aspects of American Culture
- Major Events and Trends in the Making of America
- Characteristics of American Society Today
- Basic Concepts Underlying the American System of Government

The first section presents topics related to life in the immediate community. For each of these there is given a list of vocabulary items and--where necessary for greater clarity--some key concepts. It is suggested that the teacher use these in whatever sequence seems most appropriate for the students in the community in which they live. The teacher may add or delete words and expand the list of key ideas as necessary. It is not suggested that students be given a list of words or concepts to "learn." Rather, these words might be woven into regular lesson plans as part of discussions or language presentation periods.

Holidays may be discussed as they occur or when allusion is made to them in reading materials.

Nor is it necessary that each topic either be covered thoroughly or completely mastered before the students can be given information or vocabulary related to another topic. It is suggested that at times the teacher may present the necessary pertinent facts, move to another topic, and then return to a previous one for treatment in greater depth.

The section, *Aspects of American Culture*, may be helpful in dealing with the many questions about the United States which students will ask. It may also serve as the basis for class discussions and for the development of teacher-student-prepared reading materials or outside reading assignments.

The Making of America is an overview of the major events and trends in American history. It is intended not as a comprehensive survey but as a suggested outline for teacher use in presenting the major facts which will help adult learners understand the forces which have operated in the making of today's America.

It goes without saying that a map of the United States is an essential aid in the teaching of American history. Many immigrants--and too many Americans--have an inadequate knowledge of the geography of this country. A general understanding of the size of the United States and of the location of its most important cities, natural features, regions, and industries is necessary before its history can be fully understood.

It is not expected that all of the students will be able to learn all the facts contained in this outline. Some will want to read about many of the topics in greater depth. Others may not be able to do that much. Again, it must be emphasized that the teacher is in the best position to decide how much of the content can be included.

The next brief section "American Society Today" focuses on some factual information and concepts necessary for an understanding of present-day America. Stress is placed on the composition of the population, the importance of cultural pluralism in America, and the international role and responsibilities of the United States.

The last section provides a brief review of the system of government of the United States and the powers given to government by the people of the United States themselves. In presenting the facts and concepts in this section--stressing the rights and responsibilities of citizens--the teacher will want to touch briefly on the major characteristics of other forms of government in various well-known countries of the world in order to give the students greater insight into how American institutions evolved.

What Are The Priorities For Citizenship Content At Various Learning Levels?

Students should first learn to talk about themselves (their names, addresses, family members, jobs, etc.), the classroom (the things in it, the activities), the immediate community, and the current events which they hear discussed at their places of work and elsewhere in their community. Patterns of language which would be most appropriate with each of these topics can be selected from the preceeding section of this chapter. Specific suggestions for vocabulary content will be found under each topic. Some general suggestions are as follows:

- *For beginners:* Give as much information and related vocabulary as they can absorb from Section 1 (*Information About the School and Community*).

- *For intermediates:* First return to some of the topics in Section 1 again and treat them in greater depth. Then introduce some concepts from Section 2 (*A Checklist for American Culture*) and from Section 3 (*The Making of America*).

- *For advanced students:* Treat Section 3 (*The Making of America*), Section 4 (*America Today*), and Section 5 (*The American System of Government*) with as much detail as the students' backgrounds (including their achievement in the English language) will allow.

The suggestions listed above are intended as flexible guidelines and are not to be considered prescriptive. It is likely that some very able students may be reading material in Section 5 while others may need additional guidance in Sections 1 or 2. Most important, these students, living as they do in an English-speaking community, will expect to turn to the teacher for discussion of current events and their clarification whether or not these are found in the following outlines.

What Information Might Be Taught About The School And Community?

There follow 23 recommended topics together with suggestions for their presentation and treatment. Note that parentheses throughout this section indicate that other words can be substituted; for example, *son's, daughter's, mother's.*

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Identification, Greetings, and Introductions		
Themselves	What's your name? It's _____. My name is_____. Where are you from? I was born on (September 14, 1940).	
Family	What's your (wife's)	Men often shake hands

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
	name? It's _____. Do you have children? How many children do you have?	when introduced. Women do not.
Friends and business associates	This is my friend, Mr. _____. How do you do, Mr. _____. I'm pleased to meet you. I'm glad to know you.	A man shakes a woman's hand if she extends it first.
Classmates	Who's sitting next to you, Mr. _____?	
Greetings and leave-takings	Good (evening). How are you? I'm fine, thank you, and you?	Different greetings are used at different times of the day and in different types of relationships.
Going To School		
The classroom	What's this (that)? It's a (pen). That's a (window, door, wall, picture, bulletin board, etc.). Let's open our (books). Let's read.	The school provides many activities.
The school building	The (principal's) office is on the (second) floor. The (auditorium) is on the (first) floor. We have (fire-drills, assembly programs, etc.).	Everyone leaves the room immediately when the fire gong rings.
The program	We start at eight o'clock. We're studying English, arithmetic, etc. We often go on trips.	
The Home		
Rooms and their uses	This is the (kitchen). We (eat) in the (kitchen) every day.	Note: The teacher will need to be careful to avoid embarrassing

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
	We have dishes, pots, pans, silverware, etc. We read the newspaper in the (living room).	students by implying criticism of rooms, occupations, bathing, etc. A good way to avoid this is to say, "Let's all pretend we have two rooms," or "Let's all pretend now that our sister's a nurse." etc.
Activities		
Eating	I have (breakfast) at seven. I usually have (coffee) and a roll.	
Keeping healthy	I (take a bath). I keep my clothes clean. I wash my teeth. I get enough sleep. I keep the house clean.	
Clothing	I wear heavy clothes in winter. I wear light clothes in summer.	
Family members and occupations	My brother's a (carpenter). My sister's a (nurse).	
Documents		These documents are important and difficult to replace. The proper authority should be notified when documents are lost. They should be kept safely. Those needed for everyday purposes should be carried at all times. People carrying Alien Registration Cards are required to register at a United States Post Office during the month of January.
Alien Registration Card	identification, immigration serial number	
Certificates--birth, death, doctor		
Draft card	classification, board, deferment	
Social Security card number		
Identification card	Medicare, administration	
Health insurance card	next-of-kin, employer, premium, contract	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Allergy and blood tags	type, category, blood bank	There is a need for various types of insurance, particularly medical and automobile.
Driver's license	operator, chauffeur	
Automobile registration	vehicle, fee	
Automobile insurance	company, liability, minimum interest	
Credit cards	rating	
Emergency Services		
Ambulance	doctor, stretcher, siren	The telephone operator should be called in case of emergency.
Fire	alarm, hydrant, extinguisher, fireman	
Police	traffic, accident, burglary, injury	Policemen are concerned with the welfare and safety of all persons.
Doctor	family, office, physical examination, temperature, degree	
Hospital	patient, nurse, operation	
Clinic	x-ray, technician, out-patient clinic card	Many clinics are free.
Poison control center	drugs, medicine, remedy	The city (town) has ways of helping meet emergencies; e.g., fire alarm boxes.
Sheriff	county, deputy, patrol	
State police	statewide, highway, trooper	
Federal Bureau of Investigation	agent, national, investigator	
Public and Private Transportation		
Automobile	car, passenger, vehicle, driver	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Traffic	wait, walk, jaywalk, red light, green light, pedestrian, courtesy	Both passengers and drivers need to follow safety regulations.
Road	highway, thruway, detour, signs, speed limits	Learn the appropriate road signs.
Bus	route, schedule, fare, driver	
Train	railroad, subway, station, schedule, conductor, oneway, round trip, ticket	
Taxi	cab, driver, destination, tip, meter, rate	
Airplane	airport, reservation, ticket, schedule, check-in-time, luggage, regulations	
Safety		
Home	gas, fumes, medicine, electricity, basement, slippery, furnace, stoves	Medicines at home should be clearly labeled. Matches and medicines should be kept away from children. Slippery floors are dangerous.
Job	safety rules, insurance compensation, hazard, helmet, goggles	
Road	drunken driving, speed, collision, keeping to the right, speed limit, radar regulations	The police or the fire station should be called in case of emergency. Accidents on the job should be reported immediately.

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
		It is dangerous to drive when tired or after drinking.
		Safety rules should always be obeyed.
		Everyone has a responsibility to others.
Telephone	booth, dial, operator, information, telephone book, number, buzz, dial tone	Calling or writing to family and friends is important for personal happiness.
Radio	station, commercial announcer	There are many ways of communicating. One should select the one which most economically and effectively suits the purpose of the communication.
Television	channel, listing, time, adjust, picture, sound, screen	
Newspapers--local, foreign language	sections, advertisement, news, comics, recipes, sports	
Telegraph	rate, office, wire, cable, overseas, night-letter	
Letters	stamp, address, air mail, special delivery, certified, zip code, stationery, writing paper, envelope, mail box, post office	
Magazines	subscription--monthly, weekly	Everyone should read a newspaper daily to keep abreast of events and to have things to talk about.
Consumer Purchasing and Services		
Shopping list	items, planning for the week, grouping, budget	There is value in "shopping around."

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Supermarket	checkout, sections cart, food, bunch, head, economy size	All should adhere to a "fixed but flexible budget."
Drugstore	pharmacy, prescriptions, druggist, toilet articles	Basic things should be bought before luxury items.
Laundromat	washing, drying, cleaning, clothes, soap, bleach	
Department store	information, variety, budget, sections, credit card	Money can be saved when things are bought "on sale" or in quantity.
Shopping center	plaza, parking, trading stamps	
Mail order	catalog, letter	Listen critically to sales talks and read advertisements carefully.
Gas station	gasoline, air, tire, regular, super, battery, water, radiator	

Abbreviations

Weights, Measures, Lengths, Money

ounce	oz.	There are differences in weights, measures, and lengths between the United States and other countries; e.g. meter vs. yard, kilometer vs. mile.
pound	lb.	
ton	t.	
inch	in.	
foot	ft.	Note: Terms such as cup, drop, tablespoon could also be included.
yard	yd.	
mile	mi.	
pint	pt.	
quart	qt.	
gallon	gal.	

Topics	Abbreviations	Some Key Concepts
dollar	$	
quarter	25¢	
dime	10¢	
nickel	5¢	
cent (penny)	1¢	
	Vocabulary	
Employment Agencies		
United States Employment Service	Federal, jobs, positions	There are numerous agencies for job information and openings.
New York State Employment Service	civil service, opportunity, skill, occupation	
Private agencies	resume, job listings, fee	
Newspaper advertising	want ads, salary, hourly (rate)	
Industrial employment offices	wages, employer, benefits, help wanted, unskilled, part-time, full-time	Any person can aspire to any job for which he has the skills and necessary qualifications.
Employment		
Retail department stores	personnel office requirements, experience, application blank, print, write.	Jobs can often be obtained through personal recommendations.
Qualifications and Credentials for Employment		
Letters from previous employers	recommendation, rating, evaluation sheet, reference	Letters from previous employers should be translated into English.
Training and/or experience	trade, profession, years, skills, abilities	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Evidence of education	diploma, certificate, degree, education, transcript, school record	Attempts should be made to equate training in native land with United States training. Transcripts can be evaluated by the State Education Department.
Abilities and skills needed for various jobs	specialist, expert	
Appropriate appearance	grooming, attire, attitude	It is important to be appropriately groomed when going for a job interview. The applicant should have with him any pertinent documents.
Licenses	apprentice, journeyman, master	
Interviews	pleasant, responsible, attentive, courteous, punctual	
Declaration of intention (where required)		People are sometimes hired for probationary periods to prove that they can do the job.
Local Geography		
Map of community	symbols, local, downtown, center, shopping center, street, block, city, county, town, village, number, miles, area, borough	Each community member has a responsibility to all members of the community.
Size and population		
Directions	north, south, east, west	
Landmarks	rivers, lakes, buildings	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Signs	Stop Go Exit Entrance Uptown Downtown Express Local E. 18 St. W. 23 St. No Smoking For Fire Police Poison Cashier No Parking Danger Wet Paint U. S. Mail Police Box Keep Off the Grass Don't Touch Detour Speed Checked by Radar Slippery Road MPH (miles per hour) Information	
Recreation		
Parks	picnic, play areas, facilities, zoo	There should be a balance between work and play.
Sports	spectator, participating, athletics	
Organizations	clubs, social, members	The community has many forms of free recreation.
Hobbies	crafts, art, instruction, do-it-yourself	
Centers	community, religious, ethnic	
Amusements	movies, theater, library	
Vacation	mountains, sea, country, resort, trip, tour	
Civic programs	art festivals, concerts, exhibits	
Education		
Schools	teacher	Education is compulsory from the ages of 7 to 16.
Nursery	cooperative, all day, "Headstart"	
Kindergarten		
Elementary	subjects, grades	
Secondary	principal, counselor, diploma, courses, junior high school, senior high school	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Vocational	technical, business, crafts, trade	
Adult		
Colleges--evening	professor, student, tuition, registration, fee, admission	There are numerous opportunities for continuing education.
Community		
State University	colleges, arts, sciences, graduate school, scholarship	
Private schools		
Government		
Citizen	vote, polls, election, participation, candidate	All citizens have the right and responsibility of voting for their governmental representatives (subject to requirements).
City	City Hall, Mayor, City Manager, City Council, charter, departments	
State	Governor, Constitution, Legislature, Senator, Assembly, departments	
Federal		
Executive Branch	President, Vice President, agency, Cabinet	Most officials are elected.
Legislative Branch	Congress, House of Representatives, Senate	
Judicial Branch	Supreme Court	All citizens have the responsibility of participation in civic activities--community, local, city, state, Federal. City, state, and Federal taxes provide for governmental services rendered to all people.

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
		One United States tradition is the two-party system. There are three branches of government. They provide checks and balances. All citizens should know how their government functions.
Services (Federal, State)		
Taxation	income, withholding, sales, state, property, real estate, business	Tax information can be obtained from the various government agencies.
Social Security	Medicare, benefits, conditions, retirement, card, number	
Naturalization		
Immigration	alien, identification, registration, examination, citizenship requirements, petition for naturalization	Personnel in government offices are there to serve and help all citizens.
Post Office	mail, delivery, postage, package rates, money order, stamps, mail box, certified mail, registered mail	
Welfare	support, recipient, dependent	
Unemployment Insurance	report, conditions, periods of time	
Security	armed forces, state troopers, F.B.I.	
Banking		

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Savings account	interest, earn, withdrawal, thrift, passbook, bankbook	Everyone should try to save regularly. Within limits, savings accounts are insured by the government.
Checking account	check, checkbook, overdraw, minimum, service fee	
Savings Bonds	save, deposit, amount, teller	
Christmas account (club)		
Safety deposit box	vault, charge, confidential, key	Valuables should be kept in a safe, fireproof place.
Loans	borrowing, signature, credit, installment, interest	
Credit unions (see "Credit Buying " below)		
Housing		
Apartments	lease, furnished, unfurnished, newspaper, agency	Tenants and landlords have certain responsibilities individually and to each other.
Rooms for rent	tenant, landlord, rent, security	
Social agencies (Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Y.M.H.A., Red Cross, Settlement houses, Salvation Army)	rooms, cafeteria, dormitory	
Homes (individual ownership)	realtor, deed, mortgage	Various types of housing are available for different needs and tastes. Housing is provided by private industry and government agencies. Contracts should be examined carefully.
Hotels--motels	motor lodge, vacancy, lounge	
Guest House--tourist homes	overnight, register, roomer	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Getting the Most for Your Money		
Stores--local		
Better Business Bureau	reputable, objective, reliable	Shoppers should compare more expensive items before purchasing, taking into consideration, price, quality, quantity, and reputation of establishment from which items are purchased.
Mail order catalog	index, prices, description	
Consumer magazines	up-to-date, detailed	
Advertising	ad, comparison, discount	Advertising not only helps to compare but also to gain information.
Packaging	fullness, contents, label	
Shopping centers		
Credit Buying		
Loans	personal, home improvement, short term	There are different types of interest charged with various loans.
Charge accounts	revolving, 30-day, service fee	
Credit unions	interest, terms, installments	There are advantages and disadvantages with various credit and installment plans. All contracts should be studied carefully.
Credit cards	company, payment, penalty	
Cultural Opportunities		
Museums	curator, exhibit, guide, artist	Most communities provide many of the cultural services listed.
Art gallery	sculptor, portrait, painting	
Planetarium	solar system, astronomer, astronaut	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
Aquarium	oceanographer, biologist, scientist	It is the responsibility of the individual to avail himself of those facilities and to become a member, e.g., of the library.
Historical associations	historian, archeologist, landmark	
Theatre	drama, actor, auditorium, choreographer, director, produced	
Opera		
Orchestra	conductor, instrumentation, list, podium	
Library	membership, dues, card	Membership requires effort and interest on the part of each person.
Educational institutions	membership card	
Film society		
International club		Some societies require participation, knowledge, and personal skill by the member.
Book club	literary, periodicals, biography, feature, foreign, domestic, president, committee, review, fiction	
Movies	academy award, screen, feature, short cartoon	
Stamp and coin clubs	philately, numismatics	Involvement in any one or more of these groups will bring pleasure in participation and provide satisfactory associations and friendships.
Discussion groups	chairman, secretary, participant, member	
Afternoon and evening	glee club, art class, dramatics, ceramics, painting, etc.	
Some Aspects of the American Cultural Heritage		People from countries all over the world have helped create America.
Holidays, national, commemorative, state, local, religious	Note: The vocabulary pertinent to each holiday can be taught either when the days are celebrated or as references to them appear	

Topics	Vocabulary	Some Key Concepts
	in the reading. Included might be brief comments about origin and significance.	
	Special foods, highlights of observances, gift-giving, card-sending, greeting formulas	Certain holidays celebrate important events in the growth of the Nation and the development of the democratic way of life.
National heroes and some inventors	See note above	
Famous local buildings		
Famous documents	Declaration of Independence, The Preamble to the Constitution, The Constitution, The Bill of Rights, The Monroe Doctrine, The Gettysburg Address, The Emancipation Proclamation--Related to above and others (see Appendix)	
Songs	"Yankee Doodle," "Battle Hymn of the Republic," "The Star-Spangled Banner"	
Literature and art (traditional and contemporary)	Book reviews, galleries, critics, paperbacks; names such as Frost, Hemingway, etc.	

With What Aspects Of American Culture Might Students Be Made Familiar?

A Checklist for American Culture

I. Man and Nature

   A. Food
      1. Marketing
      2. Eating
         a. Frequency of meals
         b. Times of day

        c. Kinds of food
        d. Kinds of drink
        e. Seating at meals
        f. Spoken formulas at meals
        g. Use of eating utensils
    3. Farming
    4. Processing
B. Shelter
    1. Dwellings
        a. Uses of various types of dwellings
        b. Furnishings for each
        C. Plumbing and heating
        d. Conventions of cleanliness
    2. Nonresidential buildings
C. Clothing
    1. Men's clothing
    2. Women's clothing
    3. Urban and rural clothing
D. Transportation
    1. Vehicles for transportation
        a. Cars and taxis
        b. Subways, streetcars, buses
        c. Railroads
        d. Airplanes
        e. Ships
    2. Volume of traffic
    3. Frequency of travel
E. Technology
    1. Use of mechanical inventions
    2. Use of scientific processes
F. Man and Animal
    1. Useful animals
    2. Pets
    3. Treatment of animals
G. Climate
    1. Avoiding extremes
    2. Preserving food

II. Man and Man

A. Social Structure
    1. Family groups
        a. Family organization
            size and relationships
            marriage, divorce, remarriage
            line of descent
        b. Parents
            husband-wife relations
            parent-child relations
        c. Children
            relations to adult world
            formulas of address
            relation to other children
            forms and spirit of play
            attention given to physical skills

        - school experiences
        - stories for children
        - songs for children
    - d. Adolescents
        - time of stress and revolt
    - e. Sex differences and relations
        - differences in childhood training
        - adolescent social relations
        - conventions of modesty
        - areas of supervision and freedom
        - courtship and marriage
        - areas of dominance of each sex
    - f. The aged
        - care for the aged in families
        - the aged in institutions
        - the aged who live alone
- 2. Social groups
    - a. Class levels
        - owners
        - managers
        - laborers
        - professional groups
        - groups outside the social structure
        - consciousness of class levels
        - language of various class levels
    - b. Race and nationality groups
        - intercultural relations
    - c. Religion
        - Protestants, Catholics, Jews
        - church attendance
        - baptism, marriage, burial
        - holidays and festivals
        - intergroup relations
        - superstition
    - d. Societies and associations
        - businessmen's clubs
        - fraternal orders
        - veteran's groups
        - women's clubs
        - informal associations
- 3. Community units
    - a. Scattered farm communities
    - b. Small towns
    - c. Suburban towns
    - d. Cities
    - e. Metropolitan centers
- 4. Leisure time activities
    - a. Motor activities
        - enjoying the out-of-doors
        - participating in sports
        - practicing handicrafts and skills
        - dancing and playing social games

    - b. Sensory activities
        - watching sports events
        - attending plays and movies
        - attending operas and concerts
        - listening to the radio
        - watching television
    - c. Intellectual activities
        - reading
        - doing club work
        - playing cards
- 5. Language formulas and gestures
    - a. Clerks in stores and customers
    - b. Casual meetings
    - c. Informal parties
    - d. Formal receptions
    - e. Greeting and leavetakings
    - f. Shaking hands
        - how frequently
    - g. Introductions
    - h. Differences of ceremoniousness in different social groups

B. Economic Structure
- 1. Schemes of ownership
    - a. Means of acquisition
    - b. Personal, not family, holdings
- 2. Economic exchange
    - a. Position of trade
    - b. Position of business leaders
- 3. Employment
    - a. Types of work
        - work for adolescents
    - b. Preparation for work
    - c. Areas of choice and compulsion
    - d. Amount of pay and security
        - worker's attitude toward pay
        - worker's attitude toward advancement
- 4. Labor organizations
    - a. Attitudes of others toward labor
- 5. Social service work

C. Political Structure
- 1. Democracy
    - a. Responsibility for government
        - elections
    - b. Freedom and personal security
    - c. Police
- 2. Political parties
    - a. Position of liberals and radicals
    - b. Political morals
- 3. International affairs
    - a. Relations with world groups
    - b. War

- D. Educational System
  - 1. Primary schools
    - a. Teachers (sex, age, training)
    - b. Coeducation
    - c. Subject studies
  - 2. Secondary schools
    - a. Teachers
    - b. Coeducation
    - c. Subjects studied
    - d. Social life at school
  - 3. Higher education
    - a. College studies
    - b. Campus life
  - 4. Newspaper and magazines
  - 5. Radio and television
  - 6. Adult education

III. Values in the Culture

- A. Social values
  - 1. Sanctity of the individual
  - 2. Leveling and cooperation
- B. Emotional tone
  - 1. Attitude toward showing emotion
  - 2. Times of showing emotion
- C. Religious tone
  - 1. Importance in daily life
- D. Ethical values
  - 1. Ideas of right and wrong
  - 2. Attitude toward obeying laws
  - 3. Attitude toward war, homicide, suicide
- E. Areas of taboo
  - 1. Areas of silence
  - 2. Attitude toward profanity
- F. Esthetic values
  - 1. Public taste in art
  - 2. Attitude toward artists

IV. General Patterns in American Culture

- A. Developing maximum potentialities of the individual
  - 1. Acquiring pecuniary power
  - 2. Climbing the ladder of success
  - 3. Seeking adventure
  - 4. Taking the initiative
  - 5. Competing with others
  - 6. Protecting individual rights through government
- B. Equalizing opportunities for all
  - 1. Conforming with the group
  - 2. Seeking social equality
  - 3. Enforcing equality of economic opportunity
  - 4. Using political equality
  - 5. Practicing philanthropy
  - 6. Cooperating with the group

With What Aspects Of American History And Government Should Students Become Familiar?

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE FORMATIVE YEARS 1607-1763

Useful Quotations

I. European Background

- A. The emergence of Europe from the Middle Ages and the concomitant social, economic, political, and technological changes contributed to the exploration and settlement of the New World.
  - 1. The growth of cities, the rise of merchant classes, the development of a capitalistic economy, and the formation of nation-states were contributing factors in the settlement of the New World.
  - 2. Technological advances such as the invention of the printing press, the improvements in navigation, and the development of better maps and charts aided exploration and settlement activities.
- B. The voyages of Columbus were the first of a series of explorations making Europeans more aware of the size and shape of the earth. Pre-Columbian discoveries and explorations had no influence on later discoveries.
- C. Spain, France, England, and the Netherlands all established colonies in the New World. The language and culture of each new colony was determined by the European nation settling the area.
- D. Economic considerations motivated early European interest in the New World.
  - 1. The desire for riches and empire were primary concerns of the new nation-states of Europe.
  - 2. The areas settled by France and Spain provided resources that were easily exploited for riches.
  - 3. The areas settled by the Dutch and English provided little immediate capital return.
- E. The absence of immediately marketable resources led English colonists to develop a viable agricultural base. France and Spain, on the other hand, exploitated one or two resources and neglected to establish a viable agricultural base.

II. Reasons For Settlement Of The English Colonies

- A. Colonial settlements were financed by wealthy European merchants seeking economic gain (profit).
- B. The actual settlers in the colonies came here for many individual reasons. 1,2
  - 1. Religious freedom
  - 2. Economic difficulties
  - 3. Social problems
  - 4. Compulsion (debtors, slaves, etc.)

Useful Quotations

C. Colonists who settled in the 13 colonies generally considered their move to the New World as permanent and they constructed their settlements to endure.

D. Generally, these settlers were the disenchanted, dispossessed, and malcontented members of European countries who had little to gain by staying in the Old World, and little to lose by trying the New World. 3

E. From the beginning, the English Colonies represented hope--hope for those in the Old World that this new land offered something more.

III. Economic Life In Colonial America

A. The economic base of the colonies was primarily subsistence agriculture through much of the colonial period. (Four-fifths of the colonists were farmers.) 4

B. Differing geographic conditions in the colonies caused development of varying secondary occupations.
   1. Trade, shipping, and fishing in New England
   2. Large scale agriculture in the South
   3. Trade and manufacturing by the colonies were regulated by England--especially after 1763.

D. Although many early settlers came here for religious reasons, more and more settlers began arriving for economic reasons.

E. Colonial transportation was primarily by natural waterways.

F. Lack of good internal land transportation restricted the establishment of large settlements to coastal and river locations.

G. New England and Middle Atlantic colonial ports became the commercial centers in the English colonies.

H. The Southern colonies developed a plantation system and introduced the use of Negroes and indentured servants as the main labor source.

IV. Geographical Factors Influencing Colonial Development

A. The tropical rain forest areas of Central and South America made exploration and settlement difficult. The physical geography of the low latitude regions created health, sanitation, communications, and transportation problems.

B. The physical geography of North America was generally favorable to exploration and settlement.
   1. The existence of deep water harbors and

unobstructed waterways like the Great Lakes, St. Lawrence system, the Mississippi River, the Connecticut River, and the Hudson River facilitated communications and transportation.
2. The relatively wide, fertile, flat, and well-watered Atlantic Coastal Plain aided the development of agriculture.
3. Europeans found the midlatitude continental climate generally favorable for their existence.

C. Geographic conditions varied from north to south in North America. The northern areas had relatively less flat, fertile land than did the southern areas. Length of growing season also varied from north to south.

D. The geographic conditions in North America influenced the development of social, economic, and political institutions.

V. Colonial Government

A. English colonists brought a heritage of democratic ideas with them to the New World.
1. Magna Carta
2. Petition of Right
3. Bill of Rights
4. Writings of European political thinkers

B. Colonial governments were based on the English governmental structure.

C. All colonial governments reflected the basic separation of power concept.
1. The colonists elected the legislatures.
2. The mother country appointed the executive.

D. Lax control of colonial governments by England permitted 150 years of semi-independent development. 5

E. The colonial governments evolved constantly toward expanding participation for the common man, although the total percent permitted to participate in choosing the government was small by today's standards.

F. By 1763 colonial governments were highly developed institutions controlled mainly by the colonists. The landed and wealthy classes were especially important.

G. Throughout the colonial period there was little evidence of intercolonial government cooperation except in times of stress.

H. Examples of later American political institutions can be found in colonial governments.
1. The idea of "pure democracy" in New England

Useful
Quotations

town meetings.
2. The idea of "representative democracy" in the Virginia House of Burgesses.
3. Religious toleration in Pennsylvania's Charter of Liberties. 2

VI. Colonial Society

A. The majority of settlers who came to North America were of English stock. There were however, numbers of settlers from other European nations. Non-English Europeans tended to settle together forming ethnic enclaves. 3
B. Social class structure generally was a mirror image of the patterns of the mother country. In many instances traditional class structure was modified by existing local economic and social conditions.
C. Southern colonial class structure reflected that of the 18th century rural England and tended to be the most rigid.
D. The religious hierarchy played an important role in the social and economic life of New England. Land ownership and commercial wealth were important in the Middle and Southern colonies.
E. Nonwhite minorities were relegated to the lowest status in all English colonies.
F. Over a period of time conflicts developed between various segments of the population--the East versus the West, the North versus the South, and the countryside versus the city. These manifest themselves throughout American history.

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1763-1783)

I. Causes

A. As a result of a series of four wars (1689-1763), England gained control of eastern North America.
B. Basic differences between the outlook of England and that of the colonies became increasingly apparent after the French and Indian War (1763).
    1. England felt the colonists should bear the brunt of the cost of the war as well as the cost of maintaining troops in the colonies.
    2. England's war debts and commitment to the policy of mercantilism made it necessary for her to reorganize her colonial empire.
    3. The colonists felt that they should be free to develop their economic and political destinies with a minimum of British interference.

Useful Quotations

4. Colonial attitudes toward England were influenced by:
    a. developing political maturity
    b. the removal of the French threat on the frontier
    c. the encouraging economic situation
    d. the success of the colonists as soldiers in battle
5. The British viewed the 13 colonies as just another part of an expanding empire that existed for the benefit of the "mother country" which had to be organized, governed, and protected.

C. The events leading to the American Revolution created major differences of opinion between the British government and a growing number of people. 6, 7

1. The colonists who were rebellious in their attitudes felt that they were being denied their rights as Englishmen. In their minds the following acts or incidents substantiated their feelings: 8
    a. The Proclamation of 1763 which limited westward movement in the colonies
    b. The Stamp Act which the colonists felt violated their right to no taxation without representation
    c. The Writs of Assistance which permitted general and, in the colonists'view, unlawful search and seizure.

II. The Revolutionary War

A. The Declaration of Independence marked the turning point in the struggle against England.

1. Until the issuance of the Declaration of Independence,a majority of the colonists did not support separation from England.
2. The Declaration of Independence served to crystalize opinion for separation and to rally colonists to the cause.
3. The Declaration of Independence revealed that the colonial leaders were aware of the great importance of their actions both for their own time and for the future.

B. The physical environment influenced events during the long struggle for independence.

1. The distance from England to the colonies was great.
2. The colonists had the advantage of fighting on their own territory.

3. In some areas the physical setting lent itself to guerilla-type warfare.
4. The colonists had to contend with the problem of developing and executing a strategy with 13 separate colonies strung out along an extended coastline.

C. British failure eventually on all fronts can be attributed to a degree of miscalculation.

D. The colonial effort against the British was aided by several European powers, particularly France, who was anxious to see England defeated.

E. The American colonies, as they became independent, were able to maintain an orderly continuity of government in a period of revolutionary change.

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE CONSTITUTION (1783-1789)

I. The Articles Of Confederation And The Constitution

A. The Articles of Confederation were an intermediary step between independence and the Constitution of 1789, and it represents America's first constitutional central government.
   1. The Articles of Confederation outlined the general powers that were to be exercised by the new central government.
   2. The intent of the Articles of Confederation was a loose association of 13 independent governments, lacking a chief executive and a national judiciary.

B. Although some things were accomplished during the period between 1783 and 1789, it became apparent that the Articles of Confederation were an inadequate instrument of government and that a more tightly knit and powerful central government was necessary.

C. The Constitutional Convention of 1787 was America's "second revolution."
   1. The Constitutional Convention introduced significant changes in American government by peaceful negotiation.
   2. The Constitutional Convention was conducted by delegates of high caliber and broad governmental experience whose patriotic motives far outweighed their personal, economic, and social motives.

D. The Constitution of 1787 was a bundle of compromises between:
   1. The states of large and small population
   2. The slave and free states

Useful Quotations

        3. The strong nationalists and advocates of states' rights
    E. The approval of the Constitution by the individual states reflected basic differences of opinion within the population. 10, 11
    F. The acceptance of the Constitution by the states in 1789 was a triumph for the conservative minority of America.
    G. The United States Constitution is an accumulation of many earlier stated ideas that had been previously included in various state constitutions. It is unique in that no people had ever attempted to institute all these ideas in one government on such a large scale. 12

II. The Constitution - Its Structure

    A. The seven articles written in 1787 and instituted in 1789 were a blueprint for the structure of the new government.
        1. They established the powers of the central government and the state governments.
        2. They separated the power of government equally between the legislative, executive, and judicial branches.
        3. They guaranteed the validity of contracts and property rights.
        4. They protected the liberties of the individual citizen. These have been greatly expanded by later amendments and court decisions.
    B. The Bill of Rights (Amendments 1-10) were added to the original document in 1791 and they state specific rights guaranteed to the individual citizen. 11
    C. The 15 changes (amendments) in the Constitution since 1791 have continued to:
        1. Guarantee and expand individual liberties
        2. Explain and modify the structure of the central government

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE NEW NATION (1789-1850)

I. The administration of George Washington created functioning government from the outline set forth in the Constitution. 12

    A. The mechanics of government put in motion the three separate branches of government.
    B. The Nation's first domestic and foreign policies were established at this time.

Useful Quotations

II. American foreign policy during the early years focused upon enabling the Nation to survive in the world community.

- A. Although isolation was difficult to maintain, the United States attempted to remain neutral in European power struggles and to continue to trade with all nations.
- B. The United States efforts to insulate itself from external conflict by isolation culminated in the formulation of the Monroe Doctrine. 14
  - 1. This doctrine established America's position and attitude toward any world power struggle that might attempt to involve the Western Hemisphere.
  - 2. The Monroe Doctrine became the core of American foreign policy until World War I

III. From 1800 to 1825 the Democratic-Republican Party, founded on the principles of Jeffersonian democracy, held control of the national government. 13

- A. Faith in the ability of the average man and the desire to decentralize the powers of government dominated this period. 15
- B. Events during this period fostered new feelings of national unity and began to mold the American citizen. 16

IV. Differences among the Nation's leaders concerning this country's domestic and foreign policies led to the formation of the first political parties.

- A. Political parties are a natural outgrowth of competing interests in an open society.
- B. Political parties are the creation of people who hold similar goals for the purpose of gaining and holding governmental power so those goals can be obtained.

V. The first half of the 19th century saw accelerated movement in social and government reform, the industrial revolution, and increased immigration.

- A. Reforms took place in government, education, women's rights, social welfare, and other areas.
- B. Rapid advances were made in industrial production, farm mechanization, and internal transportation.
- C. Stepped up immigration from Europe continued to provide the skills and labor necessary to build 20

Useful Quotations

and expand the Nation.

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: DIVISION AND REUNION (1840-1870)

I. The first half of the 19th century saw America expand to the Pacific Ocean through the acquisition of land by treaty, purchase, and conquest. 18, 19

   A. The development and settlement of these new lands created a Nation in constant transition.
   B. Vast quantities of good, cheap land that was available to anyone willing to bear hardships created a frontier spirit throughout America that dominated the entire 19th century.

II. During the early years of the 19th century, sectional differences began to develop within the Nation.

   A. Primarily economic in nature, these differences became increasingly apparent following the election of 1824.
   B. Three sections, the Northeast, the South, and the West became discernable. Each was characterized by different political, economic, and social outlooks and institutions.
      1. The North was characterized by:
         a. growing industrialization
         b. diversification of economic enterprises
         c. growing urban centers
         d. an economic philosophy which favored sound money, high protective tariffs, and development of internal improvements
         e. a political philosophy centered around the concept of a strong federal union
         f. economic and social mobility
      2. The South was characterized by:
         a. the plantation system which was based mainly on large land holdings and slavery
         b. a rigidly stratified society with heredity, wealth, and race being important factors
         c. the absence of large-scale industry
         d. a one-crop economy (cotton)
         e. an economic philosophy which favored easy money, low tariffs, and slave labor
         f. a political philosophy based on states' rights and the notion of nullification
         g. a general lack of economic and social mobility

Useful Quotations

3. The West was characterized by:
    a. An enormous variety of settlement patterns ranging from the isolated farmer or rancher to the settled village to the mining boom town
    b. An economic system from the agriculture and mining
    c. Democracy stemming from the equalizing effects of frontier living
    d. Great economic and social mobility

III. Events preceding the Civil War moved inexorably toward conflict.

A. Changing economic circumstances tended to aggravate sectional differences.
B. Slavery became the leading issue of the period.
    1. As westward expansion developed, the question of slavery in the new territories arose again and again. 21
        a. The South was always in search of new agricultural lands, and, since Southern agriculture was based upon slave labor, the South favored extension of the "peculiar institution" into new territories on the grounds that it would be disadvantageous to free labor. There was also a growing moral resentment of slavery. 22, 23
    2. The slavery issue in the territories was smoothed over by a series of compromises.
        a. Missouri Compromise (1820)
        b. Compromise of 1850
        c. Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854)
C. The influence of extremists on both sides seemed to grow in intensity. 24, 25
    1. Antislavery activities ranged all the way from the nonviolent activities of the Quakers to the hostile and uncompromising activities of William Garrison and John Brown.
    2. As the tempo of events quickened, many in the South who had at one time deplored slavery now vigorously defended it as a "positive good." 21
    3. The founding of the Republican party in 1854 served to unite diverse political factions in the North and West around the issue of slavery.

Useful
Quotations

D. The election of Lincoln in 1860 on the issue of opposition to the extension of slavery in the territories brought matters to a head and precipitated the crisis. 26

IV. Both the North and the South entered the war with certain advantages, but, as the war progressed, the scales tipped in favor of the North.

A. The North's advantages:
  1. Larger population
  2. Larger proportion of the national wealth
  3. Most of the nation's industries and railroads
  4. A navy to control the seas
  5. The conviction that the cause of the Union was just
  6. A strong national leader in Lincoln
B. The South's advantages:
  1. Excellent military leaders
  2. Fighting on interior lines
  3. The hope of help from England and France who needed cotton
  4. The spirit of a people defending their homes and institutions

V. Union war aims reflected two purposes 27

A. Preserving the Union
B. Creating conditions which would produce a "new birth of freedom."

VI. Most of the Civil War campaign can be interpreted in terms of the personalities of the generals and, in the case of the Union, in terms of Lincoln's relations with the generals.

VII. The Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 had profound psychological effects but little actual influence on the status of Negroes.

VIII. The task of reconstructing the defeated South involved three major problem areas. 28, 29

IX. While both President Lincoln and Congress agreed on

Useful
Quotations

the broad outlines of Reconstruction, there were fundamental and conflicting differences in approach and methods which stemmed from different notions of the meaning of secession.

A. Lincoln regarded individual Southerners as subjects for executive clemency upon taking an oath of allegiance, and believed that the Southern states, having tried but failed to leave the Union, should be restored to regular Federal status as soon as possible.
B. Congress felt that the Southern states should be treated as conquered provinces and should be restored to the Union only after conforming to requirements set forth by Congress.
C. The assassination of Lincoln made it easier for Congress to have its way over Reconstruction. 29
D. An important part of Reconstruction was the adoption of the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments guaranteeing the Negroes their freedom, citizenship, and the right to vote.

X. The Congressional desire for punishment and retribution conflicted with liberal and reform concerns for human justice. The Nation lost its chance to make the basic principles upon which it was founded a reality for all citizens.

XI. Reconstruction governments in the South made some positive contributions though their excesses are more commonly recounted.

A. After the removal of Federal troops in 1876, Southern whites regained control of state government. The "Solid South" appears.
B. The attempts of Congress to enforce Negro equality in the South were doomed to failure in the face of Southern opposition and Northern apathy.
C. The roots of contemporary civil rights problems can be traced back to the difficulties of the post-Civil War period. 30

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE ERA OF EXPANSION (1870-1900)

I. The post-Civil War era saw a massive development of the lands west of the Mississippi River.

A. The post-Civil War frontier was quite different from the earlier frontiers.

Useful Quotations

    1. Vast areas of the new lands were offered for farm land through the Homestead Act.
    2. Open prairie grasslands attracted cattlemen.
    3. Mountain and plateau areas yielded many valuable minerals.
  B. The post-Civil War frontiersman was more dependent upon the Eastern business establishment than were his predecessors.
  C. Only people of courage, stamina, and persistence could face the dangers and hardships of frontier life.

II. The years between 1870 and 1900 saw explosive changes occur in almost every aspect of American life.

  A. Agriculture
    1. Agricultural population declined relatively as mechanization, scientific farming methods, and transportation improvements reduced the need for large numbers of farm workers. The surplus farm population was drained off into industrial centers.
    2. The price of agricultural products did not keep pace with an expanding consumer economy.
    3. Farmers sought to secure a fair share of national wealth and prosperity by organization and political activity. 35
      a. Greenback Party
      b. Grangers
      c. Populist Party
  B. Big Business and Labor - the Second Industrial Revolution
    1. During the Era of Expansion, railroads linked the major sections of the Nation and greatly facilitated industrial expansion and concentration.
    2. Heavy demands for capital necessitated changes in the form of business organization. 31
      a. Corporations
      b. Holding companies
      c. Trusts
    3. Inventions combined with corporate financing methods made possible the mass production of many goods and services.
    4. The power which resulted from financial control of industrial complexes was sometimes misused. (Robber Barons) 32
    5. The rapid expansion and consolidation of industry and business created problems for labor. 33

Useful
Quotations

      - a. Cost of living
      - b. Long working hours
      - c. Unhealthy working conditions
      - d. Slum housing conditions
      - e. Little chance for economic advancement
  - 6. During the Era of Expansion, there were bitter and brutal conflicts of labor and capital. Government intervention in the strikes of the period usually benefited business.
  - 7. Labor in this period struggled to find a form of organization which would win recognition of the rights of the working man and secure for him a fair share of national wealth.
      - a. Knights of Labor
      - b. American Federation of Labor
      - c. Socialist movement--E. V. Debs
      - d. International Workers of the World
- C. The City
  - 1. The United States gradually became a nation of city dwellers as opportunities for employment and the availability of consumer goods attracted many from the farms to the cities.
  - 2. From 1870 on, an increasing percentage of the population lived in urban areas.
  - 3. As increasing numbers of people, most from the laboring class, filled the cities, severe social problems arose.
      - a. Slums
      - b. Health and sanitation
      - c. Changing family structure
      - d. Problems of the immigrant
  - 4. Political machines were quick to take advantage of the newly arrived city dweller.
- D. The Immigrant
  - 1. In the three decades between 1870 and 1900, vast numbers of immigrants flocked to our shores. 34
  - 2. The large numbers of differences in cultural backgrounds of the new immigrants, mostly from southern and eastern Europe, created problems of assimilation.
      - a. New groups tended to settle together, forming ethnic enclaves. The melting pot theory did not seem to apply.
      - b. The cultural differences of the new immigrants made assimilation difficult.
- E. The Reform Movement
  - 1. Many writers and reformers brought pressure to bear for social and economic reform by

focusing public attention on the evils and hardships created by industrialization and urbanization.
2. While much of the legislation of the era was favorable to big business, gains were made by labor, the farmers, and the social reformers.
    a. Civil service reform
    b. Antitrust legislation
    c. Regulation of railroads
    d. Democratic reforms in many state governments
3. This era saw the emergence of third parties which championed the causes of the disadvantaged and disenchanted.

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE UNITED STATES BECOMES A WORLD POWER (1900-1945)

I. America, throughout the first half of the 20th century, has had to cope with a wide range of problems that arise out of a rapidly expanding urban and industrial society and the efforts to find solutions to these problems.

A. The entire period is marked by accelerated movement toward urbanization and industrialization accompanied by the associated benefits and ills of these changes.

B. Changes in the life of all Americans were never so great as in the first half of the 20th century.

C. The Progressive Era (1900-1916) was a period of reform brought about by a number of injustices and imbalances that touched all aspects of American Life. 36

1. Social reforms, popularized by the "muckrakers," were aimed at resolving inequities created by slums, labor abuses, corruption in government, the influx of immigrants, and industrial domination of American political and economic life.
2. Social legislation in many states to regulate child labor, working conditions, and wages gave impetus to some legislation from the Federal Government.
3. This period marks the beginning of the Federal Government's awareness of its responsibility to regulate big business, promote conservation, and protect workers and labor unions.
4. Political reforms in America enlarged the

Useful Quotations

participation of the voter in government by the adoption of the 17th (election of Senators) and 19th (women's suffrage) Amendments, and the adoption in many states of the use of initiative, referendum, recall, and primary elections.

5. Economic reform efforts toward the end of the period created the Federal Reserve System in banking, brought the adoption of the 16th Amendment (progressive income tax), and saw a temporary lowering of tariffs. 37
6. A major blind spot of progressivism was the condition of the life of the Negro.
7. World War I marked the end of the Progressive Era as American attention was turned toward the international crisis.

D. America between the wars experienced a marked desire to return to the innocence of prewar life, only to end up in one of the most catastrophic economic and social periods in our history.

1. A wave of political conservatism replaced prewar progressivism and attempted to restore "normalcy" to American life.
2. Native Americanism reached new heights with the adoption of highly restrictive immigration laws, the resurgence of reactionary groups like the Ku Klux Klan, and "red scare" campaigns that fostered intolerance of minority and socialist groups. 38
3. The economic boom of the 1920's created an optimistic view of growth and prosperity in America that hid the danger signals of the impending catastrophe of 1929.
4. Prosperity and problems in the distribution of national income in the 1920's left the farmer and a large percentage of families at the edge of poverty.
5. The economic crash of 1929 and the ensuing depression of the 1930's hit every segment of the American population with such impact that some historians believe a revolution was a real possibility.
6. The 1930's were devoted largely to efforts aimed at solving the depression.
    a. Under the New Deal of Franklin D. Roosevelt, a bloodless revolution occurred in America that permanently altered the life of its citizens. 40
    b. The national government assumed responsibility for a larger portion of the general welfare of Americans. This 41

        resulted in a tremendous expansion in the size and quantity of government regulatory and social welfare agencies.
        c. Federal legislation in this period was aimed primarily toward social welfare, agriculture, and labor conditions with the purpose of providing relief, recovery, and reform.
        d. Recovery from the depression proceeded slowly until the deepening international crisis brought economic recovery about 1940.
        e. The needs of war caused a renewed buildup of American industry during World War II, returned prosperity to the farmer, and encouraged population migration to the cities and suburbs.

II. American foreign policy in the first half of the 20th century was highlighted by our emergence from isolation to a role as the military and economic leader of the free world.

    A. The United States moved uncertainly toward major responsibilities until 1920, then reversed itself and attempted to recapture the sense of isolation of the 19th century, only to find that it must assume its share of international life.
    B. Foreign affairs have come to play an increasingly dominant role in American life as the 20th century progresses.
    C. The 20th century saw the beginning of a new Manifest Destiny in territories of Asia, Latin America, and the Pacific, which was an outgrowth of the European imperialism of the late 19th century.
        1. The use of economic and military power to enforce the Monroe Doctrine involved the United States in the internal affairs of many Latin-American countries.
            a. Military force and "Dollar Diplomacy" were used by Theodore Roosevelt and William Howard Taft to protect United States economic interests in the Western Hemisphere.
            b. Wilson repudiated these policies, but

continued to intervene in Latin-America.

2. Economic interests dominated United States policy toward Asia and certain Pacific Ocean islands.
3. The acquisition of the Panama Canal, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, and other island territories was the result of United States foreign policy prior to World War I.

D. As Europe plunged into World War I, the United States attempted to remain neutral and to continue trade with both sides.
    1. Traditional Anglo-American ties and German submarine warfare finally drew the United States into the war on the side of the Allies.
    2. President Wilson claimed the war was being fought to make the world safe for democracy and attempted to establish guidelines in the Fourteen Points which would insure future world peace.
    3. America emerged from World War I disenchanted and refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles or join the League of Nations.

E. During the "Twenty-year Armistice" following World War I, the United States attempted to limit its international responsibilities and commitments.
    1. Between 1920 and 1940 the United States tried to revive political isolationism as the cornerstone of its foreign policy.
    2. High tariff laws were enacted to protect American industry, but they only succeeded in straining foreign relations.
    3. Under Franklin D. Roosevelt a new policy toward Latin-America, called the "Good Neighbor Policy," was established which attempted to improve relations and promote hemispheric cooperation.
    4. The United States did play a limited role in the 1920's and 1930's in an effort to promote peace and control any arms buildup, but its efforts were conducted outside the League of Nations.
    5. The United States attempted to ignore the breakdown of world peace in the 1930's.

F. The policies of neutrality and isolation were pursued in the early years after World War I until the late 1930's.
    1. World War II was conducted on two fronts, Europe and the Pacific, with the former receiving priority.

Useful
Quotations

2. United States industrial power was brought to bear on both theaters of the war by 1942, and the Axis Powers were brought to military surrender.
3. World War II ended with the birth of the Nuclear Age and the atomic bomb in 1945.
4. Grasping the need for effective international peace machinery, the United States participated in the establishment of the United Nations in 1945 and actively assumed the international role that she had forfeited in 1919.

THE MAKING OF AMERICA: THE UNITED STATES IN THE ATOMIC AGE

I. While World War II eliminated the fascist menace in Europe and Asia, world peace did not result. 42, 43

A. The Cold War was the result of two conflicting points of view toward the postwar world, that of the United States and that of the Soviet Union.
   1. The arms race
   2. The age of the balance of terror and overkill
   3. The struggle for ideological control of the "Third World"
   4. Berlin Blockade
   5. Greece and Korea
   6. Cuban Missile Crisis
   7. The space race
   8. Vietnam

B. The United Nations was established to promote world peace and to facilitate economic, social, and political cooperation on an international basis.

C. The postwar period has been a bewildering succession of international crises, but the United Nations has acted as a safety valve.

D. The postwar period saw the rise of the "Third World"--former colonies, in Asia and Africa--who are struggling for economic, social, and political stability.

E. The dominant theme of American foreign policy since World War II has been the containment of Communism.

F. The United States since World War II has assumed a leading role in the economic and political development of the "Third World."

Useful
Quotations

II. Postwar America has enjoyed an almost uninterrupted period of prosperity.

   A. The standard of living has been on the rise since 1945.
   B. There has been general acceptance of the increasing welfare role of the Federal Government.
   C. There has been general acceptance of the idea that the Federal Government has an important role in the regulation of the Nation's economy.
   D. Prosperity is at least partly a result of the Nation's semiwar economy.
   E. The problems of poverty remain, especially among minority groups.

III. Two new states were added to the United States--Alaska in 1958 and Hawaii in 1959.

IV. The threat of Communism at times created parellels in the United States rivaling the "Red Scare" of the 1920's.

   A. The Rosenberg-Sobell Case
   B. The Hiss-Chambers Case
   C. McCarthyism
   D. The John Birch Society

V. The long overdue progress on civil rights for the Negro was accelerated in the 1950's and 60's. 46

   A. Supreme Court decisions outlawing public school segregation 45
   B. Martin Luther King and his nonviolent protests
   C. Sit-ins and freedom rides and marches
   D. The Civil Rights Acts of 1964 and 1965 protecting the right of Negroes to vote
   E. Racial unrest in cities leading to some positive measures.
   F. The difficult problems of economic discrimination, de facto segregation, and the ghetto remain.

USEFUL QUOTATIONS

1. "We whose names are underwritten...do...solemnly and mutually in the presence of God and one another, covenant and combine ourselves into a civil body politic...and do enact, constitute, and frame such just and equal laws...as shall be most convenient for the general good of the colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience."
---Mayflower Compact, 1629

2. "God requires not a uniformity of religion to be enacted and enforced in any civil state;...enforced uniformity (sooner or later) is the greatest occasion of civil war, ravishing of conscience, persecution...and the hypocrisy and destruction of millions of souls."
---Roger Williams

3. "Whence came all these people? They are a mixture of English, Scotch, Irish, French, Dutch, Germans and Swedes. From this...breed, that race now called Americans has arisen...What then is the American, this new man? He is either a European or the descendent of a European."
---Jean Crevecoeur, French settler in New York, 1770's

4. "So vast is the territory of North America that it will require many ages to fully settle it. And till it is fully settled, labor will never be cheap here, where no man continues long a laborer for others, but gets a farm of his own."
---Benjamin Franklin, 1751

5. "The public or political character of the Virginians, corresponds with their private one; they are haughty and jealous of their liberties, impatient of restraint, and can scarcely bear the thought of being controlled by any superior power."
---Andrew Burnaby, English traveler, 1760's

6. "His majesty's subjects in these colonies owe allegiance to the Crown of Great Britain...they are entitled to all the inherent rights and privileges of his...subjects...It is inseparably essential to...the undoubted rights of Englishmen, that no taxes should be imposed on them but with their own consent, given personally, or by their representatives."
---Stamp Act Congress, 1765

7. "I am not a Virginian, but an American."
---Patrick Henry, 1774

8. "These are the times that try men's souls. The summer soldier and the sunshine patriot will in this crisis shrink from the service of his country; but he that stands it now, deserves the love and thanks of man and woman. Tyranny, like hell, is not easily conquered."
---Thomas Paine, 1776

9. "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving

their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it."
---Thomas Jefferson, Declaration of Independence, 1776

10. "The Confederation was formed when great confidence was placed in the voluntary exertions of individuals, and of the respective states...We have expected too much from the return of peace and of course we have been disappointed. Our governments have been new and unsettled...Several orders of men in the community have been prepared by degrees, for a change in government.
---Richard Henry Lee, 1787

11. "There is no declaration of rights...Congress may...extend their powers so far as they think proper; so that the state legislatures have no security for their powers,...or the people for their rights."
---George Mason, Anti-Federalist, 1787

12. "The preservation of the sacred fire of liberty, and the destiny of the republican model of government are justly considered...staked on the experiment entrusted to the hands of the American people."
---George Washington, 1789

13. "It is proper that you should understand what I deem the essential principles of our government...Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political; peace, commerce and honest friendship with all nations...the support of the State governments in their rights...a jealous care of the right of election by the people, ...encouragement of agriculture,...freedom of religion, freedom of the press, and freedom of the person."
---Thomas Jefferson, 1801

14. "The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers."
---James Monroe, 1823

15. "In America, the principle of the sovereignty of the people...is recognized by the customs and proclaimed by law...If there be a country where the doctrine of sovereignty of the people can be fairly appreciated, where...its dangers and advantages may be foreseen, that country is surely America."
---Alexis de Tocqueville, French visitor, 1830's

16. "When the laws undertake to add to...natural and just advantages artificial distinctions, to grant titles, gratuities and exclusive privileges, to make the rich richer and the potent more powerful, the humble member of society--the farmers, mechanics and laborers---who have neither the time nor the means of securing like favors to themselves, have a right to complain of the injustice of the government."
---Andrew Jackson, 1832

17. "The Erie Canal...immediately became the most convenient and favorite route for a large portion of the produce of the northwestern states, and secured to the City of New York, the position which she now holds...But for this work, the West would have had few inducements for the settler, who would have been without a market."
---Senate report, 1853

18. "Go west young man, and grow up with the country."
---Horace Greeley

19. "More than half of those who inhabit the borders of the Ohio, are again the first inhabitants...a kind of man who cannot settle upon the soil they have cleared, and who,...push forward...towards the most distant points of the American population."
---F. Michaux, French visitor, 1802

20. "Here comes a ship of Irish. They land upon the wharves of New York in rags and open-kneed breeches...From New York they go in swarms to the canals, railroads, and public works...By degrees, the most thrifty get and keep money, and purchase lands. They, with the poor Germans, do the work which without them could hardly be done."
---Charles Latrobe, English visitor, 1832

21. "Many in the South once believed that slavery was a moral and political evil. That folly and delusion are gone. We now see it in its true light, and regard it as the most safe and stable basis for free institutions in the world. It is impossible with us that...conflict can take place between labor and capital...Every plantation is a little community, with the master at its head, who concentrates in himself the united interests of capital and labor."
---John C. Calhoun, 1838

22. "Although volume upon volume is written to prove slavery a good thing, we never hear of the man who wished to take the good of it by being a slave himself."
---Abraham Lincoln, 1854

23. "The prejudice of race appears to be stronger in those states that have abolished slavery than in those where it still exists; and nowhere is it so intolerant as in those states where servitude has never been known...Thus the Negro (in the North) is free, but he can share neither the rights, nor the pleasures, nor the labor...of those whose equal he has been declared to be."
---Alexis de Tocqueville, 1830's

24. "I shall strenously contend for the immediate enfranchisement of our slave population...I will be harsh as truth and as uncompromising as justice. On this subject, I do not wish to think, or speak or write with moderation ...I am in earnest--I will not equivocate--I will not excuse--I will not retreat a single inch--and I will be heard."
---William Lloyd Garrison, 1831

25. "Northern states have assumed the right of deciding on the propriety of our domestic institutions...they have denounced as sinful the institution of slavery...A sectional party on the fourth of March...will take possession of the government. The guarantees of the Constitution will then no longer exist."
---South Carolina reasons for secession, 1860

26. "A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved; I do not expect the house to fall; but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all another."
---Abraham Lincoln, 1858

27. "We here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain--that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom--and that government of the people, by the people and for the people shall not perish from the earth."
---Abraham Lincoln, 1863 (Gettysburg Address)

28. "The purpose of the civil rights bill...is to change the entire structure and character of the state governments...The Negroes have not asked for the privilege of voting; the vast majority of them have no idea what it means...The federal government has not jurisdiction, authority or power to regulate such subjects for any state."
---Andrew Johnson, 1867

29. "Dead states cannot restore their own existence...They must come in as new states or remain as conquered provinces. Congress...is the only power that can act in this matter...This is not a "white man's government" ...This is man's government; the government of all men alike...Equal rights to all the privilege of government is innate in every man."
---Thaddeus Stevens, 1865

30. "We believe you are not familiar with the description of the Ku Klux Klans riding nightly over the country...spreading terror...by robbing, whipping, ravishing and killing our people without provocation."
---Protest of Kentucky Negroes to Senate, 1871

31. "I am a citizen of the United States,...producer of petroleum for more than thirty years...But my refinery has been shut down...owing to the powerful and all-pervasive machinations of the Standard Oil Trust, in criminal collusion and conspiracy with the railroads to destroy my business."
---Complaint to U.S. Industrial Commission, 1899

32. "Surplus wealth is a sacred trust which its possessor is bound to administer for the good of the community."
---Andrew Carnegie

33. "Five reductions in wage, in work, and in conditions of employment swept through the shops at Pullman between May and December, 1893... Pullman...owns the houses, the schoolhouse, and churches in the town...The wages he pays out with one hand,...he takes back with the other."
---Workmen's Case, Pullman Strike, 1894

34. "In America,...every thing was free, as we had heard in Russia... Education was free. That subject my father had written about repeatedly, as comprising the chief hope for us children, the essence of American opportunity."
---Mary Antin, Russian immigrant, 1894

35. "You come to us and tell us that the great cities are in favor of the gold standard; we reply that the great cities rest upon our broad and fertile plains. Burn down your cities and leave our farms, and your cities will spring up again as if by magic; but destroy our farms and grass will grow in the streets of every city in the country...We will answer the demand for a gold standard by saying...You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns, you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold."
---William Jennings Bryan, 1896

36. "I am in no sense hostile to corporations. This is an age of combinations...We should, moreover, recognize in cordial and ample fashion the immense good effected by corporate agencies in a society such as ours... The corporation has come to stay...the public at large can protect itself from certain evil effects by using the authority already centralized in the national government."
---Theodore Roosevelt, 1907

37. "I take my stand absolutely, where every Progressive ought to take his stand, on the proposition that private monopoly is indefensible and intolerable...Our purpose is the restoration of freedom. We propose to prevent monopoly by law."
---Woodrow Wilson, 1912

38. "I have suffered for things that I am guilty of. I am suffering because I am a radical, and indeed I am a radical; I have suffered because I was an Italian, and indeed I am an Italian."
---Bartolomeo Vanzetti, 1927

39. "Here is the challenge to our democracy. In this nation I see...millions of families trying to live on incomes so meager that the pall of family disaster hangs over them day by day...I see one-third of a nation ill-housed, ill-clad, ill-nourished."
---Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1937

40. "First of all, let me assert my firm belief that the only thing we have to fear is fear itself--nameless, unreasoning, unjustified terror, which paralyzes efforts to convert retreat into advance."
---Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933

41. "We are under a Constitution, but the Constitution is what the judges say it is."
---Charles Evan Hughes

42. "We look forward to a world founded on four essential human freedoms. The first is freedom of speech and expression...The second is freedom of every person to worship God in his own way...The third is freedom from want ...The fourth is freedom from fear."
---Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1941

43. "Visible destruction was probably less serious than the dislocation of the entire fabric of the European economy...It is logical that the United States should do whatever it is able to do to assist in the return of normal economic health in the world."
---George Marshall, 1947

44. "What kind of peace do we seek? Not a Pax Americana enforced on the world by American weapons of war. Not the peace of the grave or the security of the slave. I am talking about the genuine peace--the kind of peace that makes life on earth worth living."
---John F. Kennedy, 1963

45. "We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal...Such segregation is a denial of equal protection of the laws."
---Supreme Court, 1954

46. "One hundred years of delay have passed since President Lincoln freed the slaves, yet their heirs, their grandsons, are not fully free. They are not yet freed from the bond injustice; they are not yet freed from social and economic oppression. And this nation, for all its hopes and all its boasts, will not be fully free until its citizens are free."
---John F. Kennedy, 1963

THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

I. The power of government emanates from the citizens of the Nation to the institutions established by a written constitution.

  A. These institutions are controlled by elected representatives of the people, or people appointed by the representatives, for the purpose of generally carrying out the wishes of the people.
  B. The participation of the people in government is accomplished through representatives chosen by the electoral process.
    1. The cornerstone in the American system of government is the electoral process where suffrage is broad and real choices are offered through periodic,free elections.
    2. The foundation of the electoral process is the citizen who, by right, participates in the selection of candidates of his choice, may freely support nominees of his choice, and may vote for nominees by the secret ballot.

II. The government has been given specific powers by the people through a written constitution for the purpose of serving and promoting the general welfare of all the people.

  A. The structure of American government centers upon the principle of "Separation of Power" and the "Federal System."
    1. The power to govern has been separated into three branches, each empowered to carry out a different function of the process.

    - a. The legislative branch is empowered to enact all laws necessary to insure the general welfare.
    - b. The executive branch is empowered to enforce all laws enacted by the legislative branch.
    - c. The judicial branch is empowered to interpret or explain the laws and protect the rights and liberties of the Nation's citizens.
- 2. The American system of government is a federal system in which different bodies are established at different levels to fulfill different functions.
    - a. The highest level of government is the national government, established to serve the whole United States in those areas of national concern.
        - i. Our relations with other nations are a primary area of concern.
        - ii. It attempts to meet those domestic problems which state governments are incapable of solving individually (e.g. national defense, coining money, interstate commerce, protecting civil liberties defined in the U.S. Constitution).
    - b. The second level of government is that of several states.
        - i. Each state has established a government designed to meet the needs of the citizens only within its borders, and it is constructed upon a written constitution that defines the areas of its authority.
        - ii. State governments work at many of the same domestic problems as the national government. They have no individual power to deal with foreign nations.
        - iii. Examples of state jurisdiction are education, voting, transportation, regulation of intrastate commerce, and police protection.
    - c. The third level of government is that of local governments which include counties, cities, towns, and villages.
        - i. These governments have the most immediate effect on the daily lives of the citizens of the Nation.
        - ii. They regulate safety, direct local health and welfare programs, administer public education, provide police protection, and construct local transportation and recreation facilities, among other things.
    - d. All levels of government share some powers that are necessary if that government is to survive and function as a responsible servant of the people.
        - i. All levels share the power to secure operating revenues by taxation.
        - ii. All levels maintain law enforcement departments, each established to protect its citizens and enforce the laws enacted by that level of government.

B. Our Federal Government system is founded upon a written constitution that defines the structure and function of American government.
   1. The Constitution defines the structure and powers of the three branches of our national government in its first three articles.
   2. It provides for peaceful change by amendment and is thus responsive to changing economic, political, and social conditions of the people.
   3. It outlines, in the Bill of Rights, the specific civil liberties guaranteed each citizen of our Nation.
   4. It limits the power of all levels of government by reserving to the individual citizen all rights not specifically stated in the Federal or state constitutions.

AMERICA TODAY

I. Profile of the American People

   A. The present population of the United States shows a mixture of ethnic, racial, and religious backgrounds.
   B. The 1960 census figures reveal the following facts about the population of the United States.
      1. About 200,000,000 people
      2. A wide variety of ethnic backgrounds (predominantly European).
      3. A wide variety of religious groups (predominantly Protestant).
      4. The population of the United States is primarily urban.
         a. Megalopolis
         b. The population growth rate is not unusually high but is concentrated in urban areas.
      5. The population is unevenly distributed across the Nation.
         a. The Northeast is the most heavily populated region.
         b. The West and Middle West are increasing in population (percentage) and the Northeast and South are decreasing in population (percentage).
         c. California is the largest state in population; New York City is the largest city.
      6. Half of the population is less than 26 years old.
      7. Increased life expectancy has created a large elderly population.
      8. Nation is primarily middle-class, but there is a sizable poverty group.
      9. The material standard of living is extremely high and increasing each year.

II. Industry is creating a new way of life.

   A. Rapidly changing industry occupies a central role in American life.
      1. Modern industry is based upon scientific research and new production techniques:
         a. Sources of power--widespread use of electricity, oil, gas, and atomic power.
         b. New industries--plastics, electronics, aviation
         c. Automation--its implications

2. There have been many changes in industrial organization, leadership, and ownership.
    a. Modern industry demands an increasingly educated labor force.
    b. Skilled jobs are increasing at a great rate while unskilled jobs are decreasing rapidly.
3. Industrial development has created problems
    a. Air and water pollution
    b. Increased numbers of technologically unemployed
    c. Concentration of business organization and control
4. Industrial development has brought many benefits.
    a. Larger overall salaries and a corresponding increase in the standard of living
    b. Larger numbers of people share in investment and profits of business development
    c. Wider distribution of wealth
    d. Shorter workweek--more leisure time

III. American society has become increasingly pluralistic.

  A. Ethnic, religious, racial, and national minorities have contributed toward the richness of American life.
  B. Public education, increased leisure time, the mass media, and improved transportation and communication have helped expand cultural horizons.

IV. Community life has changed greatly since colonial days.

  A. Geographic and economic mobility are important characteristics of the American population.
    1. There has been a movement of people from the countryside to the cities and urban areas.
    2. There has been a general movement out of the cities into the suburbs.
    3. There is a general movement of people to the North and to the West.
  B. The community structure is changing.
    1. Geographic and economic mobility, improved transportation, and urbanization have contributed to the changing of traditional community structure and role.
    2. Changing community structure has created problems in local government, education, and social life.
  C. Urban problems have been created.
    1. The central city has begun to decay.
    2. The suburbs are growing rapidly.
    3. There are problems of urban renewal.
      a. Gold
      b. Planning and development
      c. Implications for city dwellers
    4. Many new problems have arisen in the governing of cities.
    5. Increased commuting from suburbs to city has brought problems of mass transportation.
    6. Minority groups and ghettos create unrest and disturbances.
    7. There is new Federal Government interest in urban problems.

V. Industry is creating a new way of life.

- A. Rapidly changing industry occupies a central role in American life.
  - 1. Modern industry is based upon scientific research and new production techniques:
    - a. Sources of power--widespread use of electricity, oil, gas, and atomic power.
    - b. New industries--plastics, electronics, aviation
    - c. Automation--its implications
  - 2. There have been many changes in industrial organization, leadership, and ownership.
    - a. Modern industry demands an increasingly educated labor force.
    - b. Skilled jobs are increasing at a great rate while unskilled jobs are decreasing rapidly
  - 3. Industrial development has created problems
- B. Our Federal Government system is founded upon a written constitution that defines the structure and function of American government.
  - 1. The Constitution defines the structure and powers of the three branches of our national government in its first three articles.
  - 2. It provides for peaceful change by amendment and is thus responsive to changing economic, political, and social conditions of the people.
  - 3. It outlines, in the Bill of Rights, the specific civil liberties guaranteed each citizen of our Nation.
  - 4. It limits the power of all levels of government by reserving to the individual citizen all rights not specifically stated in the Federal or state constitutions.

PROBLEMS FACING OUR PEOPLE

Many problems are currently affecting many areas in the lives of our people and the life of our Nation. They may be divided into those which are of a personal nature, those which involve the development of the Nation, and finally those which arise from our relations with other nations and people.

These problems overlap and interrelate with each other to a considerable extent. For example, the rising crime rate is a problem for us which also plagues other nations. Of course, the crime rate is related to the proverty problem as well, which in turn relates to some of our other problems.

Listing and examining problems facing our people is necessary to see our society as it is and what it must do in order to become what it should. The following problem areas are not the only ones to be considered and may not even be considered the most critical. For some Americans finding a job, recovering from illness, and other personal frustrations may seem more serious.

Passing beyond the personal problem areas, seven problems are briefly cited here.

1. *Family Stability and Community Living*
   The central question here is how to best strengthen the family and build satisfying and satisfactory communities.
2. *Civil Rights and Race Relations*
   How can we avoid a second civil war by eradicating inequality in civil rights and prejudices against minorities?
3. *Education and Schools*
   There is little disagreement on the need for improved schools. How can we best insure equal educational opportunity and how do we meet these needs? What should be the goals of today's schools?
4. *Crime and Law Enforcement*
   Faced with a fantastic crime rate and disregard for law, how do we prevent persons from becoming criminals and how do we treat criminals so as to prevent further crime?
5. *Community Planning*
   How do we make our cities safe, comfortable, pleasant, and enjoyable?
6. *Conservation of Resources*
   Faced with a rapidly expanding population, how do we prevent our Nation from further wasting and destroying its resources?
7. *The Economic Struggle*
   How can we preserve the economic values of small business faced with mergers and monopolies increasingly powerful? What should be our national policy towards agriculture? How can industrial peace and productivity be maintained together with free labor movement? How can America's trading position be improved in the national interest in harmony with the needs of other nations and world peace? How can we best meet the rising demands for more government services? How can we best prevent the ravages of economic instability? What should be the role of government in fiscal and monetary policy?

Solution of national or domestic problems is not enough in today's world. Any nation, in order to survive, must be concerned with the larger and more complex issues transcending the old-fashioned ideas of national boundaries and sovereignty.

- *Competing Idealogies*
  How may conflicting idealogies compete without serious or total conflict?
- *Shifting Balances of Power*
  What lasting and secure relationships can be developed between the newly emerging nations, Japan, the United States, the Soviet Union, and China?
- *Disarmament and Weapon Control*
  What can be done to halt the proliferation of nuclear weapons and bring these dangerous armaments under control?
- *Overpopulation and the Population Explosion*
  How can the population growth, particularly in the developing nations be managed?
- *International Peace and Security*
  How can world organizations better function in order to prevent wars and bring world peace?

As the basic social unit, the family must be preserved and strengthened. The following is an outline for use in considering the problem of the family and the community.

I. Why are families and communities important in a society?

   A. The family meets the basic needs of love, reproduction, and training the young.
   B. Communities provide goods and services.
   C. Families encourage a feeling of belonging and provide a purpose for grouping together into communities.
   D. Communities represent a microcosm of the total or larger society and civilization.

II. Why do individuals marry?

   A. Most people need security and love.
   B. Most men and women want to establish families.
   C. Marriage fulfills other needs in addition to love and security.
   D. Identity in the community is a strong reason for marriage.

III. How are successful marriages achieved?

   A. Preparation for marriage includesboth physical and emotional elements.
   B. Age and maturity are important.
   C. Family happiness depends on a number of basic characteristics such as common interest and backgrounds.

IV. What are some of the major family problems today?

A. The romantic concept of marriage is overemphasized, leading to disillusionment.
B. Lack of sex education leads to hasty, forced marriages between immature people.
C. Financial mismanagement causes many marriage problems.
D. Working mothers may neglect family responsibilities and distort traditional roles.
E. Wars and military service put severe strains on marriage and family life.
F. Statutes dealing with marriage and divorce have lagged behind the modern problems of marriage.

V. How are family problems met today?

A. A number of groups are working to prepare couples for marriage and family life.
B. Working mothers are gaining assistance and acceptance.
C. Many families successfully resist pressures which drive families apart.
D. More professional help is available for counseling and guidance.
E. Religious groups most concerned with family stability and security are beginning to reevaluate traditional doctrines and orthodoxy.
F. Many urgent family problems are not being met. Far greater energy and resources should be allocated to cope with these problems.

VI. What community problems are readily identified?

A. Ghetto communities and segregated housing are at the root of many of today's community problems.
B. Lack of planning in the past has created several irremedial physical problems which can only be solved by demolition.
C. Inadequate housing, schools, health care, and space cast a blight over many communities.
D. Slum areas require the most expensive services. They are the most costly burdens on the rest of the community. Only the slum landlord benefits from these conditions.
E. Water and air pollution are growing menaces.
F. Crime and lawlessness have turned some cities into battlegrounds.
G. Inadequate financing joined with outdated units of government reduce or nullify efforts to cope with these enormous problems.
H. Most cities and large communities are choked with traffic and face transportation congestion which threatens to strangle their existence.
I. Lack of community pride, partly due to a high rate of transiency, reduces efforts to seek support for community action.
J. Outdated boundary lines and jurisdiction stifle joint efforts by neighboring communities to solve their common problems.
K. Disproportionate reliance on the real estate tax as a source of revenue has contributed to financial frustration in many communities.

VII. What are some ways of solving community problems?

A. Priorities and goals resulting from study and planning must be established.
B. Community good, rather than special favored interests must overshadow all planning and development.
C. Political reform and modernization of political units and districts must take place. Competing and overlapping units must be consolidated.
D. All levels of government from local through national must cooperate.
E. City planning and administration must not become a political prize.
F. Private enterprise must be given incentives to work for community life to the benefit of all.
G. The major problems must be met with both short and longterm programs.

The following are case studies or practical problems which might be used as study aids in developing understandings about the problem of family and community living.

1. The Gates family lives in a pleasant suburban community. Mr. Gates, the father, has a job at which he earns a salary of $13,000 annually. He has a month's paid vacation; pension, sickness, and accident insurance; and other fringe benefits. Since he is on salary, his income is steady and he does not have to worry about unemployment or layoffs.

The Gates family is paying on a mortgage in monthly payments of $155 with 11 years remaining before the mortgage will be paid in full. Last summer they bought a boat and motor for water skiing. Payments on this run $42 monthly. A new automatic washing machine is being paid for at $16 a month. The insurance on a second car, bought for their son, Jim, age 18, costs $28 monthly. Mr. Gates is a good father and has adequate life insurance which he pays in monthly premiums of $40. Mrs. Gates' fur coat bought on sale 4 months ago costs $20 a month in payments which will run for another 2 years. Since many of their neighbors have hi-fi stereo sets, they felt it would be nice to have one also. Payments on the new stereo are $30 a month and will run for 22 more months. The family owns a color TV which is paid for. It is 5 years old and is beginning to show the need of major repair or replacement. Linda Gates, age 16, is hoping to enter a fine liberal arts girl's college when she completes high school next year.

The family has no other source of income than their father's salary. Other than social security, the pension and company insurance, plus the life insurance, the family has no regular savings program.

Analysis:

- What are some of the serious problems facing the Gates family?
- What are some solutions that this family might try?

- Draw up a simple working budget for this family which might meet one of their problems.
- What are some of the dangers of extensive installment buying?

2. The Jackson family lives in its own large house trailer at a trailer court near the city of Detroit. Their trailer is paid for as is their late model Chevrolet sedan. The Jacksons are a happy family with two youngsters ages two and four. They are a Negro family and mix easily with many of their friends who also live at the trailer court. Mr. Jackson commutes by car daily to his job in a defense plant in Detroit. There is no bus service to the trailer court and his working hours often shift. Public transportation is therefore often unsuitable to his working hours. Because he is in defense work, the family has had to move with Mr. Jackson's job three times in the past 7 years, living in many different parts of the United States.

Analysis:

- What are three problems which trailer living has brought to the Jackson family?
- Discuss some possible solutions to the problems faced by this family.
- Are their problems avoided by families in more permanent residence?
- What are some of the problems which will arise as the children in this family grow older? Why do many people live in trailers?

3. A wealthy foundation has offered a large financial grant to support an experiment in creating an entirely new "ideal" community. It also plans to donate a huge tract of land for the community. This site will accommodate a community of about 17,000 people. The land is over 70 miles from the nearest city. The foundation will provide $10,000,000 to start construction of public buildings and basic services. Business will be encouraged to start branch factories and enterprises in the new community. Most basic goods and services will have to be provided on the spot, since distances to markets and sources of supply are great. This ideal place will be located in a delightful climate in the southwestern United States. Adequate water is available from a nearby lake created by a power dam which will provide energy for the new town or city. The soil is rich in the surrounding area. An interstate highway passes within 10 miles of the site and a railroad has offered to run a connecting line into the area.

Analysis:

- As chairman of the foundation's committee, select the first 50 residents of your community by occupation.
- Make a planning map of the community showing where you would locate services, business, schools, residences, etc.
- What basic building and facilities would you construct first?
- How would you prevent unplanned community growth after your ideal community began to develop?

- What would you do to insure that as the children grew up, they would not all leave the community for opportunities elsewhere?
- What would you do to prevent racial problems and difficulties?

Civil rights and racial tensions represent the most difficult problem facing our Nation. Inequalities at all levels must be removed before a democratic society can be achieved.

I. Background of the minority problem

  A. Individuals and groups differing from the majority are labeled.
  B. Differences in color, religion, and cultural backgrounds create fears and hatreds.
  C. The fears of the majority may result in actions and reactions usually unfavorable to those who are the targets of discrimination.
  D. Historically the United States has accepted minorities and individuals from many lands and backgrounds.
  E. America's largest racial minority, the Negro, about 10% of the total population, traces its background to forced migration, slavery, and brutal oppression.
  F. Unlimited immigration for many years aroused the fear of the nativists who had arrived a generation or more earlier.
    1. Protestants attacked Catholics from Ireland in the 1840's.
    2. Labor groups tried to halt immigration.
    3. Hate groups like the Ku Klux Klan used violence and terror in the 1920's and 1950's.
  G. The scar of slavery was not eradicated by emancipation. Acceptance and assistance, neither of which developed for too long, were necessary.

II. What are some of the aspects of the problem today?

  A. All groups want full equality now, not in the distant future.
  B. Minorities want an end to all forms of discrimination.
  C. Some groups want separatism based on race.
  D. Violence has created resentment, sometimes from those most supporting the civil rights movement.
  E. Legislation and court decisions have failed so far to meet all basic issues.
  F. Private groups such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People have led in the fight to end discrimination.
  G. State fair employment practices acts, housing acts, and Federal civil rights legislation beginning in 1957 are noteworthy efforts.
  H. Actions by courts have tried to remove barriers with only partial success.
  I. Extremists are demanding the creation of two nations within the United States, a black and a white society, totally segregated and separated.

For case studies dealing with this problem, see the section on civil rights and liberties.

The problems of today's schools focus on finance, staffing, curriculum, philosophy, equality of opportunity, racial balance, and adequate physical facilities.

I. Why are public schools and free education important?

   A. Schools help preserve the democratic way of life.
   B. Education and schools are institutions concerned with transmitting values.
   C. Talents and abilities of children are developed.
   D. Basic knowledge and opportunities await all children served.

II. How did public schools develop in the United States?

   A. Free schools started in colonial times.
   B. Fearing the democratic ideal implicit in free schools, opposition to equal educational opportunity for all has always been strong.
   C. Free basic education is now available to all, although of greatly uneven quality.
   D. Public support for education extends from the preprimary to the graduate schools.
   E. Higher education has expanded greatly, particularly since World War II.

III. What major problems face schools?

   A. Racial discrimination and segregation remain in many schools.
      1. Integration moves very slowly in some states.
      2. De facto segregation caused by restricted housing presents a barrier in many states and cities.
   B. Financing of schools is becoming an enormous task as costs rise and demands for better and broader programs increase.
   C. Unequal educational opportunity, resulting from economic differences, still denies quality education to large numbers of people.
   D. Schools perform many costly services extending beyond basic educational functions.
      1. Schools provide social and welfare functions.
      2. Schools are involved in medical and health services.
      3. Employment and guidance services are provided by many schools.
      4. Recreation and community programs are provided by many schools.
      5. Educational systems are often required to provide services which are traditionally met by the home or some other agency.
   E. The teacher and classroom shortages remain acute.
   F. The threats to academic freedom and independence menace all free education.
   G. Mounting pressures for using public funds to support religious education are being felt.
      1. Federal aid to parochial and secular schools has been established.
      2. Free transportation and other services to children attending private and religious schools is provided by many states.
      3. Laws providing public tax money have been used to supply textbooks for children in private and parochial schools.

4. The provision of released time for religious purposes is widespread.
5. An end to the policy of excluding religious schools from state aid to education is being sought in many states.

IV. What is the value of free education to the individual and society?

A. Most people cannot afford to pay all the costs of education as individuals. Society must help.
B. A good basic education is essential to earning a living and learning how to live.
C. Education offers exposure to a wider world, past and present. Public education makes this opportunity available to all.
D. Schools train leaders and develop leadership characteristics.
E. Society depends on public schools to teach traditions, values, and culture to each generation.
F. Public education helps make all people aware of their rights and responsibilities in a dynamic, democratic society.

The following case studies and sample problems may be used to develop further insights into the problems of public education.

1. The Valley Central School serves a suburban area of about 30,000 people located in a community near a large, upstate city in New York. This school system enrolls about 5,000 children from kindergarten through the 12th grade. There are six elementary schools, an intermediate school, and a high school.

Most parents work at good jobs in the nearby city. Most own their own homes which are modern and in good repair. Almost all of the community is residential. There are some office buildings, retail stores, service shops, and a few farms. There is no large industry.

People in this community are proud of their school system which is regarded as the best in the area and one of the best in the State. They have a fine staff, good buildings, and a quality program. About 80 percent of the graduates go on to college.

Recently, the largest taxpayer in the school district, the power company, announced plans to close down its major generating plant and move to a nuclear plant about 50 miles away. The departure of this plant will mean a loss to the school district in taxes over one-half million dollars annually.

Analysis:

- Since four-fifths of the graduates of this school go on to college, what should the program for this school be?
- What program should be offered to the one-fifth who terminate high school at Valley Central High School?

- As business manager of this school system, what proposals would you make concerning the anticipated loss of tax revenue?
- As a concerned parent who wants high quality education but fears higher taxes, what are some positive suggestions you might make to help the school with this problem?

2. A committee of four adults representing the All Patriots Union of 200 members locally, a chapter of the national All Patriots Union has demanded that the high school principal remove 50 different titles from the shelves of the school library because they contain, in the words of the All Patriots Union, "immoral, unpatriotic, and dangerous ideas." The books they want removed include some of the most important writings in literature ranging from *Shakespeare* to *Hiroshima, The Ugly American,* and *Lord of the Flies.* Some members of the organization wish to go further than removing the books from the shelves. They want the librarian discharged from his job and the teachers removed who suggested students read some of the books in question. The organization is also upset because some of its "approved" books are not in the library. There is also criticism of the school library's subscriptions to the New York Times, although this is only one of several newspapers which the library receives daily.

Analysis:

- As principal, how would you handle this situation?
- As a pupil in this school, what do you think your reaction might be to this kind of pressure?
- If you were a member of the All Patriots Union, what would your feelings on this matter be?
- What are the basic issues that this situation raises?
- Is this censorship? Explain.

In spite of new techniques and greatly expanded efforts, the rise of crime, the increase in the numbers of criminals, and the lowering of their age levels force American society to seek answers to this old problem.

I. What is the extent of the crime problem?

A. The crime rate is rising much faster than the normal population growth.
B. Lawlessness knows no geographic or socioeconomic barriers.
C. Youth is more seriously involved than any other age level.

II. Who are the lawbreakers and criminals?

A. One-time offenders who commit one crime, usually because of emotional or personal involvement, are part of the criminal group.
B. Delinquent and youthful offenders are increasing.
C. Professional criminals make up the hard core.
D. Racketeers and businessmen in illicit businesses contribute to the rise in crime.
E. The "white collar" criminals, tax evaders, and others, operate in the twilight zone between cheating and actual felony.

III. Who should be specifically concerned with crime?

A. All police agencies are involved.
B. Special legislative commissions and committees have acted on the problem.
C. Presidential commissions are concerned.
D. The courts and their supporting agencies act in this area.
E. The legal profession and the penal system all work on the problem.

IV. How are offenders treated?

A. We have moved away from the brutality and punishments of the past.
B. The prison system not only removes offenders from society but works to bring them back as useful, responsible citizens.
C. The parole system and youth court programs offer new approaches.

V. What are some of the costs of crime and lawlessness?

A. The loss of productive manpower and the need to use more manpower in operating our penal systems is formidable.
B. Citizens lose property, are killed, and must pay higher taxes for more protection.
C. The courts are overburdened, often delaying justice.
D. New courts have to be created and old ones expanded at considerable cost.
E. Welfare and new social services must be made available to cope with this rising burden.
F. Rackets and cheating deprive the nation of millions of dollars in lost taxes and funds to provide more needed services.
G. Illegal gambling alone syphons billions of dollars out of our economy each year.

VI. What are some ways of combatting or preventing this problem?

A. The public must become aroused and demand action.
B. Considerable attention must be given to the sources of crime.
C. Rehabilitation of the criminal, rather than just punishment, must gain even greater acceptance.
D. Organizational reforms of the police, court, and penal systems must be undertaken in order to cope with the problem.
E. Public funds must be channeled into crime fighting with greater willingness.

See the section on civil liberties in Part I for case study samples.

The problem of resource management and utilization has been gravely enlarged in the 20th century by the growing population, mushrooming technology, and constant warfare with its accompanying waste.

I. What does conserving natural and human resources entail?

A. We must save our wealth and use it wisely.

B. Human resources are the skills, talents, labor, and ingenuity of people.
C. Poor land and soil means poor people.
D. Forest destruction brings flood, drought, and soil erosion.
E. An untrained people are unable to produce wealth.

II. Why must we save trees and wild life?

A. Forests provide many valuable products.
B. Forests protect watersheds and farmlands.
C. Forests provide beauty and recreation.
D. Forests protect wildlife.

III. Why is there concern over topsoil and land?

A. We are a nation that has lost much of its land.
B. With an exploding world population, good cropland is the most important source of food and fiber.

IV. How do the problems of water and air affect us?

A. Survival of all life depends on pure water and air.
B. Water and air consumption are constantly increasing because of population and technological growth and change.
C. Water resources are not evenly distributed.
D. All of our major streams and rivers are polluted to some degree.
E. The air is being increasingly fouled and polluted as our mechanical civilization races on.
F. A culture, dominated by a value system of "more and more," is facing less and less.

V. What are some human resource conservation measures?

A. We can work for the best health for the most people.
B. We try to eliminate hazards and accidents.
C. The reduction of crime can release human energy and talent.
D. Greater educational opportunity will develop new talent.
E. Examine our problems and attitudes toward the elderly.
F. Provide employment for all.

VI. What are the major resource problems to be solved?

A. We must provide enough wood for lumber products and still protect forests, wildlife, and watersheds.
B. We must find ways of preserving natural beauty and prevent the ugliness of technology from destroying nature.
C. We must find the best ways to utilize croplands and halt the loss of precious soil.
D. We must clean up our water supply and learn to reuse water.
E. Air pollution must be recognized as a major threat to our civilization.
F. We must seek ways to best utilize the talents and energy of all of our people.

Small business and individual enterprise face the growing threat of giant mergers and corporate dominance. Are the values of small business worth preserving?

I. How "big" is big business?

- A. Mergers and consolidations are increasing.
- B. Of the more than 4½ million enterprises in the United States, less than 1,000 produce more than 30 percent of the goods and services produced.
- C. Some of the largest corporations earn higher net incomes than are paid in taxes to some of our largest states.

II. How does big business benefit us?

- A. Modern methods and technology which only large corporations can command, give us an abundance of goods and services.
- B. Efficiency can bring greatly reduced costs and savings.
- C. Variety and new products are the benefits of costly research which big business alone can finance.
- D. Big business has provided the war materials needed in national emergencies.

III. How might the enormous power of big business hurt us?

- A. Monopoly may force prices and costs to unreasonable levels.
- B. Monopolistic conditions can dictate to labor and threaten the free labor union movement.
- C. Monopoly can concentrate enough power to challenge government.
- D. Concentration may eliminate competition and end free enterprise.

IV. What has been done to protect small business and the public from the harmful results of economic concentration?

- A. Antitrust and antimonopoly legislation has been enacted and enforced.
- B. Congress has created regulatory agencies to act as watchdogs over business.
- C. The Small Business Administration, a government agency, helps small business in many ways.
- D. Taxes on business insure that they pay their share of the costs of government.
- E. Natural monopolies, like public utilities are closely supervised by government agencies which operate in the public interest.

V. What is the background of this problem?

- A. Although dating back into the 19th century, antimonopoly laws have not halted or slowed the growth of business concentration.
- B. Wars have stimulated giant corporations and created whole new subsidized industries which increase the tendency towards consolidation.

C. While small business is growing too, the areas open to small business are steadily shrinking. In many instances, only retailing remains as an avenue of opportunity for small business.
D. Patents and other government protections have sometimes been used by monopolists as means of reducing competition or gaining special advantages.
E. The alliance of finance, corporate producer, technician, and manager has created an almost overwhelming concentration of economic power.

VI. What questions must be resolved?

A. Should small business be encouraged?
B. At what point does big business become too big?
C. How may big business be made to better realize its responsibilities to the community and the Nation.

The change from a rural farming nation to an urban society in the past 40 years has brought grave problems to the American farmer.

I. What does farming mean to us today?

A. American farmers provide us with most of our food and fiber.
B. American farmers are so productive that we sell or give away farm products to other nations.
C. Farming remains our single biggest industry.
D. In comparison with the world's farmers, American agriculture is highly advanced and successful.

II. What has happened to farm income and farmers during the 20th century?

A. Farming was fairly prosperous between 1900 and 1920.
B. Many farmers suffered a prolonged depression from 1921 until about 1941.
C. Since the end of the Korean War, farm prosperity has been uneven in contrast to business and other industry.
D. Farm income in some types of farming steadily declines in relation to farm costs.
E. Farmers have recognized that their problems vary with the type of farming they do and with local conditions.

III. What are some of the great changes in recent farming?

A. Farm production is rising faster than any other industry.
B. Farmers use the machines and technology of modern science and industry extensively.
C. Investment in land and equipment is enormous.
D. Government assistance to farmers covers every aspect of agriculture.
E. In spite of many efforts and programs, farmers still produce surplus crops in some areas.

IV. How have farmers tried to solve their own problems?

A. Farmers have organized their own groups.
B. Farmers have taken political action and procured extensive government aid.
C. Small or marginal farms have been abandoned or consolidated with larger, more efficient producers.

V. What are the major farm problems today?

A. How do we keep farming healthy and prosperous as an industry?
B. How do we get the subsistence farmer off the land and into worthwhile employment?
C. How can we overcome the remaining crop surplus problem?
D. In what ways can we best help migrant farm workers.
E. How can we solve the farm labor problem?

With the acceptance of the existence and operation of organized labor in American society, new issues and controversies have developed between labor and management. How can we preserve free collective bargaining and what is the proper role of the government in labor-management relations?

I. How do American workers and businessmen function together?

A. Many workers are organized into unions. Over 18 million workers belong to these organizations.
B. Upon recognition of these unions, business and labor make agreements called contracts.
C. There are three basic work situations called the *open shop*, the *union shop*, and the *closed shop*.
D. Over two-thirds of the people in the American labor force belong to no union.
E. Strikes, or work stoppages resulting from labor disputes, are much less common than believed. Strikes result in a loss of less than 2 percent of all hours worked.

II. What have workers gained by forming unions?

A. To balance the greater bargaining power of the employer, workers organize to bargain collectively.
B. Workers hope to gain a greater share of the wealth they have created through higher pay, shorter hours, improved working conditions, and fringe benefits.
C. Workers have sought better~living standards and conditions.
D. Workers try to protect their jobs through seniority, hiring union members, and seeking solutions to problems caused by automation.
E. Workers hope to protect themselves and gain recognition of their own strength on a par with big business or organized agriculture.

III. What has been the union struggle in American history?

A. As early as 1780, workers had begun to form trade unions.
B. Workers have formed craft and industrial unions.

C. Workers have turned to political parties to achieve their goals.
D. Workers have fought in violent conflicts seeking their objectives.
E. Not until the 20th century did the union movement begin to achieve broad successes.

IV. How have employers and the public opposed union actions and demands?

A. Public opionion has frequently been against unions and their activities.
B. Laws and court decisions often favored the management viewpoint.
C. The President of the United States and state governors have sometimes seemed more sympathetic to management than to unions.
D. A variety of economic and political weapons have been used by employers against unions. One such weapon is the injunction.

V. What are some of the benefits of joining a union today?

A. Collective bargaining brings a worker gains.
B. Wages have risen steadily and are usually higher in unionized industry.
C. Hours, working conditions, and fringe benefits have tended to improve most rapidly in many unionized areas.
D. A worker gains protection that comes from group action or pressure.

VI. What are some of the obligations of union membership?

A. Loyalty to the leadership and the goals is a necessity.
B. Members must be willing to support action with dues or other activities.
C. Union members must uphold the standards represented by membership.
D. A member may have to surrender some of his individual freedoms as a worker and subject himself to union discipline.

VII. How is the government concerned with union activities?

A. All states have laws governing workers and regulating labor conditions.
B. The Federal Government has a real interest in interstate commerce and maintains a large, strong Department of Labor.
C. There are state and Federal minimum wage, and maximum hour, and industrial codes to administer.
D. Ever since the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt, a more sympathetic attitude by government towards labor has been demonstrated.
E. National labor legislation includes considerable regulation of internal union activities and collective bargaining practices.

VIII. What is the background of this problem?

A. Union members are a minority but represent key job areas which are vital to our economic system.

B. Although strikes represent a tiny loss of worktime, they can cripple an entire industry or the whole Nation. A prolonged railroad or trucker's strike could paralyze the Nation.
C. More and more labor disputes are requiring increased government involvement or intervention.
D. Unions want changes in basic labor laws which industry strongly opposes.
E. Some corruption has been found among labor leaders.
F. Some employers and others are demanding "open shop laws" in all states.
G. Workers fear automation even though it means increased productivity.
H. Some contracts show little regard for public welfare.
I. Many unorganized workers are still unprotected because of loopholes in labor laws.
J. The relationship between government employee and government employer has not been resolved.

IX. What are the main questions raised by the problem of labor-management relations?

A. How can we best preserve free collective bargaining?
B. What is the role of the government in labor-management relations?
C. How can the public interest be protected in industrial disputes?
D. Must business and labor solve the problems imposed by automation themselves or is this a concern for us all?
E. How can we best establish fair labor relationships for government employees?

The burdens of government have grown perhaps more than those of other institutions in the 20th century. Every seventh person is employed by government whose activities range from taking the waterfowl census to operating a multibillion dollar space industry.

I. Why are there taxes?

A. Government does things we cannot or will not do for ourselves. Most of these activities cost money.
B. Government meets such needs as national security and provides essential services such as water purification and supply.
C. Government sometimes uses taxes to discourage certain activities.

II. What are some of the demands society makes on government?

A. From every level of government, we demand a wide variety of protection and services. Some of these are overlapping partly because of the federal structure of our system.
B. A growing population, a rapidly changing society, international tensions, and problems created by technology all increase the pressure for government to assume more roles and provide more services.
C. Well-organized pressure groups, representing special interests, seem insatiable in their demands for government aids and services.

D. The major expenditure of the national governemnt is for national defense. The states spend great sums for social welfare and education.

III. How is government usually financed?

A. The widest variety of taxation accounts for the bulk of government income. Income taxes, property taxes, sales taxes, and excises are common forms of taxation.
B. Government frequently raises money through loans and bond issues.
C. Fees, licenses, and lotteries are sources of income.

IV. Why is meeting the costs of government a major problem?

A. Government takes over one-fourth of all wealth produced, providing services the majority judge essential.
B. Government spending and taxing policies greatly influence the economic health of our society.
C. The issue over where individual responsibility ends and government responsibility begins is still unresolved.
D. Government is our largest employer and customer.
E. Tax loopholes, tax evasion, and regressive taxes such as sales taxes often have placed heavy burdens on those least able to bear the load.
F. Wasteful practices in government add unnecessary costs and weaken confidence in the integrity of the government.
G. Unfair or inequitable tax burdens may generate distrust in the democratic process, thereby weakening the entire fabric of self-government.

Economic instability, leading to runaway inflation or depression, has proven to be one of the most difficult problems of modern capitalism. Even with many built-in stabilizers, prudent fiscal and monetary policies, and careful management, economic stability has remained a most elusive goal.

I. What are some of the elements in the background of this problem?

A. The economy seems to move through periods of expansion followed by decline without clear rationale.
B. The peak of economic activity is called prosperity.
C. The depth of economic inactivity is known as depression.
D. When the economy slips out of prosperity, we call it a partial depression or recession.
E. As the economic activity begins to resume, we label it recovery.
F. The last major depression began in 1929. Since 1946, there have been several recessions but no major collapse.
G. In the midst of continued prosperity, pockets of depression and depressed industries persist.
H. Until the 1930's, serious objections to governmental involvement in overcoming economic depressions, particularly at the level of the individual citizen, were heard.

I. Beginning with the Federal Reserve System, government has become increasingly involved in trying to control the business cycle.

J. The Employment Act of 1946 created the Council of Economic Advisors, whose responsibility is to chart economic conditions, alerting the President and Congress when action is needed. Twenty-five years earlier such programs would have been labeled unconstitutional.

II. What safeguards have been built into our economic system to minimize the effect of the rise and fall of business activity?

A. The minimum wage, unemployment insurance benefits, and guaranteed annual wages are some examples of the kinds of protection which have been provided for our workers.

B. Guaranteed old age pensions and welfare programs protect the purchasing power of large segments of the population.

C. Savings are partially protected by bank deposit insurance.

D. Standby fiscal and monetary controls are operated by the Federal Reserve Banking system.

E. Existing legislation insures Congressional action in the event of a major economic slump or runaway inflation.

III. What are some of the approaches to the problem of inflation and deflation?

A. Some believe that a limited inflationary growth is essential to continued prosperity.

B. Excessive uneveness in the economic system must be smoothed out. Graduated taxes have tended to reduce the extremes in income level.

C. We must choose the best methods of achieving economic stability without sacrificing basic freedoms.

D. Chronic unemployment persists. One in five Americans lives on income below what is considered a subsistance level.

E. The international balance of payments problem remains acute, with its implied threat to domestic economic stability.

F. Agriculture has been economically in distress for many years.

G. Transportation, particularly the railroads, has many problems.

H. Unrestrained and uncontrolled credit expansion may overheat the economy.

IV. What are some of the approaches to the solution of this problem?

A. Careful, long-range planning of resource management is essential.

B. Capital development must be encouraged.

C. Human resources and productivity must be fully and wisely utilized.

D. Constant adjustments are necessary as a result of the changes in our economic system.

E. A partnership between business and government must continue.

F. The abolition of poverty and unemployment is possible if society is willing to bear the cost.

Continued prosperity and economic stability depend greatly on the smooth flow and expansion of world trade with the United States as a leading trading partner. As Benjamin Franklin observed, trade never ruined a nation. Trade may be one of the main routes to world peace and prosperity.

I. Why is world trade so important to the United States?

- A. Many of the goods vital to our way of life must be purchased outside our Nation.
- B. Almost one-fifth of all the world's trade originates in the United States.
- C. Clogged trade routes and patterns tend to create an unhealthy economic nationalism.
- D. Trade creates and maintains peaceful relations.
- E. Loss of overseas markets for American goods would bring economic disaster to large segments of our economy.

II. What has been the historic trade policy of the United States?

- A. The United States began as a trading nation.
- B. From 1819 to 1933, protection from high tariffs seemed essential to domestic manufacturers.
- C. World economic chaos growing out of World War I brought a revolution in American tariff philosophy and policies.
- D. Since World War II, trade expansion, war recovery, removal of barriers, and other movements in the direction of free trade have been steady and significant.

III. What are some of the elements in the problem of tariffs and trade?

- A. Tariffs and preferential treatment are barriers which block trade by increasing the costs of goods and discouraging marketing.
- B. Many nations impose quotas or limits on certain goods as means of reducing imports or protecting domestic producers of the same items.
- C. Controls over foreign exchange are means by which governments protect their exchange balances in such currencies as dollars. Limiting amounts of currency their citizens can take out of the nation is a similar technique which has the same result.
- D. Many nations subsidize certain domestic industries, like shipbuilding, on grounds of national security. If the domestic producers overproduce or create surpluses, there is a tendency to dump these surpluses on a foreign market which may lead to retaliation and trade warfare.
- E. Trading by a nation to gain political objectives or a foreign policy goal, often at a loss, tends to ruin normal commerce and trade channels. Boycotts or embargoes may be effective economic weapons to gain political advantage, but they have a ruinous effect both on foreign trade and domestic producers.
- F. Cartels or international monopolies of private corporations carve up world markets for their own purposes. They stifle competition and thus tend to distort natural trading patterns, stimulating dangerous economic nationalism.

G. While trade barriers have been lowered slightly since World War II, many areas remain unyielding, blocking trade.
H. The gold crisis may lead the United States to a drastic shift in its increasingly liberal trade policies. A return to protection, with its dangers, is possible.

IV. What has been done to try to ease the trade and tariff problem?

A. Reciprocity has been encouraged.
B. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) is a continous bargaining session by 30 member nations who handle over 50 percent of the world's trade.
C. The International Trade Cooperation Agency working with the United Nations and other world groups uses persuasion and education in an effort to solve some of these problems.
D. The Trade Expansion Act of 1962 and other legislation have given the President of the United States greater freedom than ever to negotiate and develop liberal trade policies.
E. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, while not directly involved, provide a stimulus for the improvement of world trade.

The United Nations was created because of the desire to establish a world of peace and security. Through the collective action and support of the great and small nations on an equal basis, this organization began to function as World War II ended, the nuclear age dawned, western European colonial powers declined, and the Cold War began.

I. Why have world security and the success of the United Nations become major problems?

A. The threat and outbreak of wars have grown rapidly since the end of World War II. Little wars threaten to become major wars unless brought to an end through the United Nations.
B. The "sovereign" state system has helped make this a century of total war and demonstrated its impotence to prevent major conflicts from occuring twice in one generation.
C. Nuclear weapons, emerging nations, population chaos, and opposing ideologies have produced problems that could lead to war.
D. The Cold War, with the polarization of the world between two major powers, could become a hot war leading to a total conflict.
E. The demands for world order and international security have deep historical roots.
F. Most people believe that a third world war, fought with nuclear weapons, would be the last war, destroying civilization and perhaps even life on earth.

II. What are some significant recent developments in relation to this problem?

A. The United Nations has had a mixture of successes and failures in its peacekeeping efforts.
B. Regional alliances have grown. These regional understandings may have been factors in maintaining peace in areas over which they have had some jurisdiction, such as Latin America.

C. The Economic and Social Council and the Trusteeship Council of the United Nations have enjoyed considerable support and success in their efforts and programs. True international cooperation and understanding seem to have accompanied their undertakings.

D. The elimination of most European colonialism has removed one of the great sources of rivalry and irritation plaguing the world's security for three centuries.

E. The collapse of the great alliance which triumphed in World War II has split the United Nations and limited its effectiveness on a number of serious issues.

F. The veto in the Security Council has often paralyzed that body, but under the Uniting for Peace Resolution, the Assembly and the Secretary-General have assumed new roles and have had some success at peacekeeping.

G. Some of the United Nations members have often behaved in ways that reflected a disdain or disregard for the principles agreed to in the United Nations Charter.

H. In spite of differences, disagreements, and hatreds among members, only one nation has even temporarily dropped out, unlike the League of Nations which was weakened by the departure of major world powers.

What Are Some Useful Reading Materials on American Civilization and Culture?

The following books may be useful for further, nontechnical reading in American history. Two series of general works are listed, each of which contains short books written in an easy but scholarly style. A number of other works are also given. Almost all of these books are available in paperback editions and most of them include excellent bibliographies.

Collections

The Chicago History of American Civilization Series: Chicago. University of Chicago Press. The Making of America, Series: New York. Hill and Wang Inc.

Agar, Herbert. The price of power: America since 1945. 1957.
Cunliffe, Marcus. The nation takes shape, 1789-1837. 1959.
Franklin, J. H. Reconstruction, after the civil war. 1961.
Hayes, Sammuel. The responses to industrialism, 1885-1914. 1957.
Jones, Maldwyn. American immigration. 1960.
Leuchtenburg, William. The perils of prosperity, 1914-32. 1958.
McCloskey, Robert. The American Supreme Court. 1960.
Morgan, Edmund. Birth of the republic, 1763-89. 1956.
Pelling, Henry. American labor. 1960.
Perkins, Dexter. The new age of Franklin Roosevelt, 1932-45. 1957.
Nichols, Roy. The stakes of power, 1845-77. 1961.
Ver Steeg, Clarence. The formative years, 1607-1763. 1964.
Wiltse, Charles. The new nation, 1800-45. 1961.
Wright, Edmond. Fabric of freedom, 1763-1800. 1961.

Individual Works

Aaron, Daniel. Men of good hope. Oxford University Press. 1961.
A series of essays on American reformers.

Hofstadter, Richard. The American political tradition. Vintage. 1948.
A brilliant, readable study of some great American political figures.

Kennedy, J. F. Profiles in courage. Harper. 1956.
A well-known series of essays on courageous Americans.

Kennedy, J. F. A nation of immigrants. Harper and Row. 1964.
A short survey of immigration by the late President.

Sellers, Charles, & May, Henry. A synopsis of American history. Rand McNally. 1963.

Thistlewaite, Frank. The American experiment. Cambridge Univ. Press. 1955.
An Englishman's view of American history.

Woodward, C. V. The strange career of Jim Crow. Oxford Univ. Press. 1957.
Essential background on civil rights.

CHAPTER 4

APPROACHES, METHODS, AND TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING THE LINGUISTIC CONTENT

Why Is A Flexible Teaching Approach Desirable?

As has been mentioned, there are many ways of approaching or introducing the essential linguistic items and citizenship facts. Some teachers find that having students learn a dialog is an effective way of starting; others prefer to use current news items, songs, poems, or quotations as starting points; still others prefer to start with a sequential series of actions which are described as they are performed; and some teachers capitalize on incidental happenings to introduce new citizenship concepts, structures, or vocabulary. With more advanced students, language and citizenship items found in the school textbooks may become the point of departure for more intensive study.

Many teachers prefer to use a variety of approaches. For example, greetings and introductions may be taught effectively through dialog dramatization; the present progressive tense ("I'm walking.") may be approached through the action series (explained later in this chapter); citizenship items related to the immediate community may be taught through discussion and map study.

Whatever approach is used for introducing any material, it is important that the teacher prepare numerous practice activities which will clarify and reinforce it. In this chapter, methods and techniques used in presenting and practicing linguistic and citizenship content will be presented separately. It is essential, however, that these be interrelated in actual practice. Language patterns should be used with the concepts and vocabulary related to citizenship; citizenship is taught and understood through language.

What Are Some Approaches To Teaching the Linguistic Content?

There are three major aspects of the English language: its sound system, its structure, and its vocabulary. Since culture is reflected in vocabulary, some of its aspects are learned concomitantly as intonation, structure, and vocabulary are presented and practiced in those situations in which these linguistic features are normally used by American English speakers.

So far as teaching methods are concerned, there are several that are widely used. Some teachers prefer adaptations of the direct method; some use the basic English method; and some, the action series method. Others use the audiolingual or aural-oral method; still others prefer a combination of methods.

The direct method is in direct contrast to the grammar-translation procedure. It substitutes language contact for grammar recitation and language usage for translation. It emphasizes language learning by direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations.

The basic English method is a system of everyday words used in the regular forms of normal English. It involves a selection of the smallest number of English words needed for a general day-to-day purpose.

The action series method is the one wherein the student plays the role needed to dramatize each sentence that he utters. He suits the action to the word in a meaningful and logical sequence.

The audiolingual method considers listening and speaking the first and central task in learning a language, reading and writing as skills that follow.

The aural-oral or oral-aural or simply oral method is merely another term for what is more commonly called audiolingual, indicating the primacy of listening and speaking in language teaching.

Within each method, there have been developed numerous techniques and devices which according to their advocates will lead to "communication" more efficiently and easily than with any other method. All of the methods have value. In the hands of competent and interested teachers, each one has been known to produce results. This handbook does not propose to recommend any one method or system. It is suggested, however, that various procedures be followed which combine the successful and nonconflicting elements of several methods for teaching English as a second language. Within these are emphasized techniques which are in consonance with the latest thinking in other disciplines (sociology and psychology, for example). Above all, the teacher is encouraged to use those approaches or devices which will be most suitable to the particular adult students being taught, to the community in which they live, and to the teacher's own personality.

Adaptation and change of *any* method will have to be made to help these particular adult students attain the objectives of the program in English and citizenship. For example, modification will be needed depending on the organization of the classes. Are all these students literate in their native tongue? Are all of them newcomers to an English-speaking community? Do they all speak the same native language? The teacher's choice and use of method and material will depend on the answers to these and similar questions.

Changes will be required also depending on the resources within the school or community. For example, is there a language laboratory where instruction can be reinforced or supplemented? Are there many classes at the same learning level which could provide students with an audience situation outside of their classroom? Are there other speakers of these students' native tongue in the community who could help in diagnosing students' problems or in preparing instructional materials?

The important point to remember is that each student is an *individual*. Thus, any method or combination of methods which will help the students acquire the language and the culture of his community is the right method for the student.

Description and Use of Language Laboratory

A language laboratory is a room especially equipped with electronic devices so that each student may hear the foreign language, record his own imitation of what he has heard, and play back the spoken materials. Its main function is to provide an opportunity for the student to overlearn what he has begun to assemble while working in the classroom with the teacher. This mechanical equipment may be used for:

- Pronunciation
- Phonetic drills
- Oral corrective work
- Practice in the use of grammatical forms
- Aural comprehension
- Dictation
- Oral expression
- Original conversation
- Oral recitation of memorized dialogs or poetry
- Presentation of selections of literary or cultural value
- Aural-oral testing
- Oral drills of all kinds

What Is The Sequence In Language Development?

Because of the primacy of the oral language in social interaction and because reading and writing are actually helped by listening and speaking, the order of language development is usually listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Students must hear many times--properly modelled--any material they are expected to say; they need to both hear and say any material they are expected to read; they must understand, say, and read anything they will be expected to write. The teacher might find it helpful to remember the key words, *HEAR, SAY, SEE, DO.*

Although students' needs and aspirations may necessitate placing more or less emphasis on a particular activity at various times during the program, the overall aim of the English program is to develop in students increasing competency in these areas. At the same time, the program is designed to give them the knowledge and attitudes needed for making a successful adjustment to the community. Within each of these competencies--listening with understanding, speaking, reading, and writing--attention must be given to features of the sound system (pronunciation of vowels and consonants, melody or intonation, rhythm, stress on words, pauses); structure (grammar); and vocabulary.

In teaching any language item, it is suggested that the teacher proceed in five steps. These need not be developed in one lesson. At the beginning level, especially with illiterates, only steps 1, 2, and some aspects of 3 might be possible in one lesson. Step 4, for example, might not be possible for one or more weeks after a language item has been introduced. The five suggested steps are as follows:

- Lead students toward *understanding* the material. This may be done through the use of real objects; through pictures; through paraphrases (sentences using familiar words which explain the new word; for example, "A butcher is a man who cuts meat.") through dramatization; through a brief explanation in English or through their native language equivalent. *Students should not be asked to repeat or practice material whose meaning is not clear.*

- Pronounce the material often as a model and have students repeat it as often as necessary.

- Encourage students to *practice* the material in as many ways as possible.

- Train them to *choose* the correct word, expression, or structure (in statements, responses, or questions) from several choices.

- Help them to *use* the new material in *any communication situation* where they can express ideas with confidence in their use of inflections (word endings), word order, stress, or any other feature of the English language system.

Although sounds, structure, and vocabulary are interrelated in any act of communication, most teachers find it desirable to give intensive practice in each feature of English separately. During some segment of the teaching period, the teacher might present a sound or the contrast intonation in statements or inverted questions. It is also helpful at this time to teach the forms of words, such as the past form of verbs or the plurals of nouns; or prefixes or suffixes in words such as *unkind, untrue, jobless, childless*. It is important, during these presentations, to develop the students' knowledge of English vocabulary, gradually but systematically. In the following sections are suggested some ways of teaching features of sound, structure, and vocabulary.

How May The Listening-Speaking Skills Be Developed?

Pronunciation

The sound system is learned best through student imitation, first of the teacher and later through possible reinforcement with tape or record. Live presentation of new material by the teacher is preferable to any electronic or mechanical device. After the initial presentation, however, tapes and records can assist in providing the additional sustained practice which language learning requires. These are most effective when their use is postponed until after the students have completed extensive practice based on the teacher model.

With older students, whose ingrained native language habits may seriously conflict with the production of the new language sounds, guided imitation of the teacher is usually not enough. After identifying those sounds[1] which cause the most difficulty to adult students, the teacher might use several of the simple techniques, or a combination of these techniques, suggested below.

- Describe the position of the speech organs as the sound is being produced.

- Draw a simple diagram of the speech organs, such as that shown in Figure 1 of the Appendix.

- Compare sounds with their nearest equivalent from the students' native languages.

- Demonstrate that certain sounds are modifications of English sounds the students already know. (This may be particularly helpful in teaching the voiced and voiceless pairs: b/p, f/v, s/z.)

Simple descriptions are most effective. For example, in explaining the pronunciation of *u*, the teacher might say, "The lips are rounded (a physical demonstration and/or a simple sketch on the board will be helpful at this point) and the tongue is back." To make diagrams that are as uncluttered and clear as possible, the teacher might practice sketching the lips, teeth, palate, and tongue on the board, and, using dotted lines, indicating the position of the tongue or the movement of the tongue from one sound to the other.

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[1] A list of the most common difficulties faced by native speakers of other lands will be found in the Appendix.

After one sound has been taught (the sound of "th" in "thin," for example), it may be reinforced by teaching a contrasting sound (*d,t,* or *th* as in *the*) in familiar words. This is best done by restricting the examples to minimal pairs, that is, pairs of words in which there is no difference except for the sound being contrasted--*thin/tin, tin/din, beat/bit, Pete/pet, wine/vine, yellow/Jello, zoo/Sue.* If no minimal pair exists, syllables of words might be used, written with dashes to indicate that they are partial words, for example: *fash--.*

There are three essential steps in teaching students to produce sounds. Students need to *hear* the sound, *identify* sound, and *produce* the sound.

Following is a brief illustration of a suggested procedure to insure recognition and production. The problem might be the *b* and *p* in initial position. The teacher might use simple pictures illustrating the words or write the words themselves on the board or on a chart--in print or in cursive writing.

Column I	Column II
ban	pan
Ben	pen
bin	pin
berry	Perry
bear	pear
bit	pit

Below are some procedures the teacher might wish to use:

- To help students hear the sound
    - Say all the words two or three times, reading down Column I or the first set of pictures.
    - Say all the words two or three times, reading down Column II.
    - Say the words several times, reading across the two columns.

- To help students identify the sound
    - Give two words from either list and ask the students to indicate whether they are the same or different; for example, *Ben/Ben*--same; *Ben/pen*--different.
    - Give three words from either list and ask the students to indicate which two are the same. For example, the teacher could say, "ban, ban, pan," and the students would respond, "One and two."

    - Give a word from either list and have the students indicate on which list or set of pictures it appears by holding up one or two fingers.

- To help students produce the sound
    - Say each word in Column I or in the first set of pictures. Have the students repeat each word immediately afterwards.
    - Say each word in Column II and have the students repeat each one.
    - Say the words, reading across, followed by student repetition; whole class, groups, or individuals.
    - Say a word in one column. Ask *individual* students to supply the *contrasting* word.
    - Have a student give one word and ask a fellow student to give the *contrasting* word or the *same* word.
    - *Use words from both columns in short statements.* Have the student listen to and repeat each statement in groups or individually.

The teacher will find it necessary to reteach the same sound or remind the students of the pronunciation of the same sound a hundred times or more. With older students particularly, habits of using the speech organs in one's native tongue are strong. Of the three major areas of language, the speaking skill is the most difficult for an adult to acquire.

Intonation

Intonation is taught by imitation of many similar sentences. Most teachers find it preferable to teach only the two basic intonation patterns first: *the rise-full intonation* used in statements and in *wh* questions (questions starting with such words as *who, what, when, where, how, whose,* or *how much)* and *the rising intonation* used in inverted questions (those usually requiring a *yes* or *no* answer, such as "Is the boy here?" "Are those men students?" "Do you need a pen?")

It may be desirable to use an upward arm gesture to show rising intonation and a downward arm movement to show falling intonation; or to place up or down arrows (↓) at the end of the sentence; or to place curved arrows (⤵) over the words that have the highest or lowest pitch. The teacher may wish to experiment to find out which technique seems to be of most help to students.

The typical rhythm of English is learned by imitation of the teacher and by practice in saying increasingly longer sentences using the words in the first sentence in the longer sentences. For example, the teacher might have the students say, "May I have that book? May I have that big book? May I have that big history book? May I have those two big history books?"

It is generally recognized that the complete elimination of a "foreign accent" in the majority of adults is virtually impossible without much time and effort. This effort might better be expanded in helping students acquire greater fluency and control of structure in English and increasing his adjustment to the community. The intensive practice of structure patterns will also contribute to more accurate sound production.

The quality of the pupils' pronunciation will depend primarily on the standards set by the teacher. Not only should the model be good but its accurate imitation should be insisted upon. However, undue pressure should be avoided, especially on an individualized basis. Choral recitation can secure maximum participation and win over the shy student. Obviously, he learns to speak well only by speaking and practicing the language, but he must feel at ease and comfortable while mouthing the new sounds.

How May Language Structure Be Introduced and Developed?

A procedure many teachers find useful in teaching structure is as follows:

- Motivate the new structure by dramatizing a situation or by reminding students of something they have heard or read.
- State the aim. This will serve to focus the students' attention on the pattern they are to learn.
- Review briefly *familiar* language items which will be needed in presenting, clarifying, or practicing the new language item. For example, if the lesson is to be on adjectives, review appropriate content words; if it is to be on the simple present tense, review expressions of time, the calendar, the verb *have,* and also the simple past (in order to contrast the two tenses).
- Use the structure in an ordinary statement.
- Make sure the adult students understand the statement. This may be done by dramatizing an action many times, using a picture, giving several sentences in English with familiar words which help explain the sentence being taught, or using the native language.
- Repeat the statement many times. The number of repetitions necessary depends on the known sounds or sound sequences in the statement.
- Have the statement repeated in chorus by the entire class several times. Give the model before *each* repetition by the class.
- If the sentence is long (six or more syllables), or if the sound sequence is unfamiliar, break the sentence into smaller elements for practice. Start breaking the sentence from the beginning or from the end. For example, if the sentence is, "I'd like to get a new job." start with "a new job," then practice "to get" then "to get a new job," then "I'd like," and finally, "I'd like to get a new job."

- Engage in group repetition of the same sentence (half a class, the right side, the left side, the front, each row). Indicate which group is to repeat the sentence by means of a hand signal with which the class has previously been made familiar.

- Have individual students repeat the same sentence. It is a good idea to start with the more advanced students. In that way, students of lesser ability will have more time to listen to the sentence and repeat it silently before they must say it out loud.

- If there are difficulties in pronunciation, say the sentence again and engage the class in choral, group, or individual repetition.

- Write the sentence or utterance on the chalkboard (only if students have learned to read).

- Say the sentence while emphasizing each word on the chalkboard with a sweep of the hand.

- Have the class, then groups, then individuals say the sentence.

- Using *familiar* vocabulary only, give two or three other sentences which illustrate the point being taught. Have the students repeat them. For example, if the topic is the use of adjectives of color after forms of *to be*, show each item and say, "The pencil is green." "The pen is green." "The book is green." "The notebook is green."

- Ask questions which help the students understand that the word "green" is a *color*, that it follows *is*, and that it does not change. This may be done after several sentences have been written on the chalkboard in the form of a chart. Do *not* write the sentences on the board unless the students have heard them and can say them with reasonable accuracy and fluency. The grammatical terms to be used in helping students "see" and describe the *form*, *function*, and *meaning* of any new item will depend to a great extent on their knowledge of grammatical terms. *Grammatical terms are not necessary*. The "rule" or description, if any, might be simple: "*Green* comes after *is*." In teaching the plurals (e.g., "The books are green."), the "rule" might be: "*Green* comes after *is* or *are*. It does *not* change." Students will find helpful a chart such as the one below (related to the singular and plural adjectives). Such a chart can be written on the board after the students have heard and said the sentences many times.

The	pencil	is	red.
The	book	is	green.

The	pencils	are	red.
The	books	are	green.

- After the students are made to "see" word order, inflections, or whatever the grammar item being taught, engage them in varied practice.

Basic Practice Activities

Below are the commonly agreed-upon names and some examples of oral pattern practice activities which will help students grow in their control of the patterns of language. The most effective method of presenting any drill is to give the model sentence two or three times and show the students exactly what is expected of them.

All drills can be done with four kinds of cues:

- Spoken words (accompanied, where possible, by an object or picture)
- Objects
- Pictures
- Written words

It is desirable to start with spoken words so that students do not have to recall the pronunciation of the word which represents the object, picture, or written word.

Substitution

In this drill, students use another word of the same class in place of a word in the sentence. A noun is replaced by another noun; a verb by another verb; an adjective by another adjective; a determiner (the, a, some, many) by another determiner. An example might be a lesson on the present tense of *have*. The teacher might give the sentence, "I have a pencil." He might then say, "Now, I'll give you another word. Put it (or use it) in the place of pencil." (Remember to give several examples.) Below are some suggested techniques:

- Say, "I have a pencil." Pause for a moment. Say the cue "ruler."
- A student called upon will say, "I have a ruler." Say, "notebook."
- A student will say, "I have a notebook." Continue in this way, practicing about ten sentences. Then proceed to "You have," "We have," "They have," and so on, using the same or similar vocabulary items.
- Instead of the word, now show an object. As above, say a sentence, then show an object, then call on a student.
- Instead of the word or object, show a picture or a chart of pictures.

- Give the base sentence, then point to one of the pictures--sometimes in sequence, sometimes at random.

- Instead of the spoken word, object, or picture, use flashcards on which individual words are written.

Replacement

The students may be asked to replace one element by another; e.g., nouns or noun by a pronoun (he, she, him).

- Give a sentence: "John has a pencil." The students will be expected to say, "He has a pencil."

- Give sentences such as "I see the man." Students will say, "I see him." (Note that the intonation changes here; in the first sentence the stress is on "man," in the second, on "see.")

- Give sentences such as "I have to go now." Students will say, "I must go now."

Paired Sentences

Give the students a sentence and then ask a question. For example say, "Mrs. Norris likes to study. What about you?" or "What about the men?" A student would be expected to respond, "I like to study, too." or "They like to study, too."

Transformation (sometimes called conversion)

The students will need practice in changing from *affirmative* to *negative*; from *declarative* to *interrogative* and later from *present* to *past* or to *future*. Give the model sentence and say, for example, "Now we're going to make questions from these sentences." The teacher might say, "He has a pencil." A student will then respond, "Does he have a pencil?" (or, "Has he a pencil?" depending on the interrogative form given in the textbook or the form the teacher uses in his own speech).

It is well to avoid grammatical terminology unless the students are familiar with it. It is not necessary to use words like *noun, negative,* or *declarative*. The teacher might give the students a sentence or phrase and then have them add a word or expression. For example, "Let's add the word *always* to these sentences." Then he might say, "I have a pencil." A student would respond, "I always have a pencil." In later stages, the teacher might ask students to place such expressions as "I'm sure," "I think," and "I know" before other sentences. For example, "He's not at home" . . . "I'm sure he's not at home."

Students in advanced classes might be asked to expand a sentence with a word or expression which will necessitate a change in verb form, e.g., "Use 'yesterday' in this sentence. Make the necessary changes. 'I'm eating.' ('I ate yesterday.')" Or the teacher might say, "Place 'The man asked me' in front of this sentence: 'How old are you?'" The student would then respond, "The man asked me how old I was."

Integration

Ask students to put two short sentences together to make one sentence. For example, "I have a pencil. It's red." becomes "I have a red pencil." "The woman is in the store. She's my sister." becomes "The woman in the store is my sister."

Question-Answer Drills

There are several basic types of question-answer drills. Moreover, each drill can be done in several ways:

- The teacher asks all the students a question; one student answers. (A choral answer may lead to confusion unless the teacher models *both* the question and the answer.)
- A student asks the teacher a question; the teacher answers.
- A student asks another student a question.
- Pairs of students question each other in chain fashion. This, too, has several variations.
    1. Student 1 asks Student 2 a question. Student 2 answers. Student 3 asks the same question of Student 4.
    2. Student 1 asks Student 2 a question. Student 2 answers and asks the same question of Student 3.
    3. Student 1 asks Student 2 a question, such as, "Do you have a pencil?" Student 2 answers, "Yes, I do." or "Yes, I have a pencil." Student 3 asks Student 4, "Does he (or she) have a pencil?" referring to Student 2.

Below are some basic question-answer drills which can be used effectively in teaching structure. (Questions which can be used in developing reading skill will be discussed later in this chapter.) In these drills, the teacher tells the students beforehand the type of response expected and gives at least two examples.

1. "Answer 'Yes.' Give a long answer (a complete sentence). Do you have a pencil?" "Yes, I have a pencil." A substitution drill can be combined effectively with this question-answer practice.
2. "Answer 'Yes.' Give a short answer. Do you have a pencil?" "Yes, I do."
3. "Answer 'No.' Give a long answer. Do you have a pencil?" I don't have a pencil."

4. "Answer 'No.' Give a short answer. Do you have a pencil?" "No, I don't."

5. "Answer 'No.' Give a short and a long answer." "No, I don't; I don't have a pencil."

6. "Answer 'No.' Tell what you have (what it is). Do you have a pencil?" "No, I don't have a pencil. I have a pen." "Is this a table?" "No, it's not (it isn't) a table. It's a chair."

7. "Choose one or the other. Do you have a pencil or a pen?" "I have a (pen)."

8. Ask a question such as "Do you have a pencil?" or "May I borrow your pencil?" The student always answers with the sentence being practiced; for example, "Yes, here it is." "Do you like salad (ice cream, swimming, work)?" "Yes, very much."

9. Ask "What do I have on my desk (in my hand)?" The student would answer, "You have a pencil (a pen, a ruler)." Ask, "What do you have on your desk?" "What do you bring to school?" or "What do we have in this room?" In this activity, the teacher, (or a student) can again use spoken words, pictures, objects, or written works to elicit the response desired. Later, no cues should be used.

Some drills lend themselves better than others, of course, to the practice of particular items. It is important to vary the drill activities and to conduct them briskly in order to prevent monotony. As soon as interest in one type of drill lags, the teacher might proceed to another type of drill, change the cue, or vary the type of student participation involved; that is, switch from choral repetition to chain repetition to questioning individual students or allowing individuals to question the teacher or each other.

Appropriate drills lead gradually to the normal use of language items in real situations. "Formulas" of the language, as well as rejoinders of all kinds (agreement, suprise, disagreement) need to be practiced. For example:

"Does my speaking bother you?" "No, not at all."

"Do you mind if I leave now?" "No, of course not."

"Hello! We thought we'd come to visit you." "What a nice surprise. Come in."

In addition to dialog or exchanges in which each speaker in turn makes one statement or in which one asks and the other answers a question, the teacher might introduce multiple responses as soon as the students are able to make them. The stimulus statement used for this purpose might be "That's a nice tie." and the response "Thank you." The second time the response may be "Thank you. I'm glad you like it." or "Thank you. It's new." or "Thank you. It's a gift from my wife." or anything else the students have practiced previously in pattern practice drills.

All the preceding drills and examples have involved understanding, repetition, and practice--the first three steps in the language learning process. They have also involved *conscious selection,* since, when the student has to choose between *he* and *she,* or *here* and *there,* or any other contrasting feature in English in a practice activity, he is consciously choosing between one form and the other.

Some of these drills have utilized spontaneous or free selection. One other technique a teacher may wish to use is as follows:

Give the students some sentences about a situation and then ask, "What would you say?" or sometimes, "What would you do?" For example, say, "You meet someone in the street who invites you to a party at his home. You've never been to his home. What would you say? What would you ask?" ("Thank you, I'd like to come. Where do you live?")

How Can Vocabulary Be Developed?

The third area of language to be taught is the vocabulary of the language. At the beginning level, it is usual to concentrate on the function words--words such as *to, for, may, can,* and *will,* which have no meaning by themselves but which indicate grammatical relationships. We should teach, too, the more frequently used vocabulary items which are needed to give meaning to the practice of the basic structures and sounds of the language. Precedence should be given to the words which are intimately related to the needs, environment, and experiences of the students.

As previously noted, not all the words a student hears during any lesson need become a part of his active vocabulary during that lesson or even in later lessons. Some words in a new language (and indeed, in our native language), will remain passive. These are words that are understood when heard or read, but which are not normally used in everyday speaking or writing Such passive vocabulary does not require as much systematic presentation and practice as does the active vocabulary. The following are suggestions the teacher may wish to use in teaching vocabulary.

- Always present vocabulary within the context of normal speech utterances.

- Always introduce new vocabulary items in known structures.

- Whenever possible, select vocabulary items that are centered about one topic. This applies to all levels of teaching. For example, words about food would be given in one lesson; words about clothing in another; words about weather in still another. It is not advisable, however, to try to present all the possible words around any one center of interest or topic (food, clothing, recreation, etc.) at one time or at one learning level. Instead, use the spiral approach. For example, in discussing taxes, introduce *sales tax* and *withholding tax* before *real estate* or *inheritance tax.*

- Whenever a familiar word or word combination is met in a new context, call the students' attention to it and have them practice it. A review or mention of the familiar meaning will help the students understand the difference. For example, when students meet "He chairs the meeting each week," they need immediate clarification and practice in order not to confuse the verb "chairs" with the noun. If possible, teach only one context at one time.

- Teach vocabulary items by giving students an understanding of the meaning of the word in many ways: by dramatizing them; by illustrating them, using yourself and the students where appropriate; by showing pictures; by paraphrasing; by giving the native language equivalent if necessary; by using any technique which will ensure comprehension.

- Practice vocabulary using the same techniques suggested for practicing structures--substitution drills, transformation drills, questions and answers, and so on.

- Reintroduce the same vocabulary items many times with all the structures and in all the situations in which they can logically be used.

How Can Communication Be Developed Through Dialogs?

The drills to this point will bring about the habitual use of word form and word sequence, but they are not "communication" as it is defined in this handbook. To achieve real communication, students need extensive practice in dialogs.

Since dialogs duplicate everyday speech and are generally built around a central theme, they enable students to practice pronunciation and intonation, to note the use of grammatical structures or vocabulary items in authentic situations, and to become increasingly aware of the social/cultural experiences in which words or expressions fit most appropriately.

In order to help students grow in communication ability, the teacher might ask them to provide alternative (but still authentic) statements in the dialogs. For example, the response to "Do you mind if I leave now?" may be, "Yes, I do." or "Could you wait until the bell rings." or "I'd like you to stay until the speaker finishes." or any other appropriate response the students have learned.

It is not necessary for students to know all the vocabulary items or grammar in every utterance of a dialog, as long as they understand the general situation and meaning. Dialogs can be used to review or recombine language structures already learned. They also prove helpful in introducing new elements of grammar. A dialog is a good way of giving the students the feeling that the language elements they are learning serve a real purpose.

The following procedures are suggested for teaching dialogs:

- Explain the dialog situation as simply as possible. Point to stick figures of speakers as each speaks.
- Point to the figure or picture of each speaker and say the sentence in the dialog voiced by that speaker. Do this several times.
- Say each sentence twice, asking the entire class to repeat each time.
- Divide the class into two groups, each half taking the part of one person in the dialog.
- Reverse the roles.
- Take one part yourself and ask a more able student to take the other role.
- Reverse the roles.
- Ask several pairs of students to dramatize the dialog. When long and complex sentences are found in the dialog, it may prove helpful to divide them into segments.

As soon as each class member is well acquainted with the dialog, the teacher might encourage students to substitute words and introduce variations of their own. Thus, "I'm going to the library." may be altered to, "I'm going to the dentist (supermarket, bank)." They might also be urged to introduce adjectives and adverbs, enlarging the meaning of a sentence. As their grasp and understanding of language structures increases, they might also combine elements from dialogs previously learned to produce longer, more sustained speech sequences. As noted above, they might also be encouraged to give alternative responses to a stimulus statement or question. This is only possible, of course, when they have acquired a fairly large vocabulary.

Most teachers find that the dialog is not only a useful instrument for teaching pronunciation, structure, and vocabulary, but that it also acts as a spur to students who might otherwise lack the motivation to master the language. As they engage in dialog dramatization, students become increasingly aware of the progress they are making and of their growing ability to communicate on a wide range of topics. Such awareness will encourage them to further efforts.

A number of sample dialogs will be found in the Appendix. The teacher may want to prepare others in order to give the student an insight into the customs of the local community, and to teach them many of the facets of American society in general. Dialogs about food, daily routines, housing, working, banking, holidays, current events, places, and architecture may be prepared, depending upon the interests of the group and based on the topics, vocabulary, and concepts found in the citizenship content (Chapter 3).

How Might Reading Be Introduced And Developed?

The third skill the students need to develop is that of reading. In addition to learning to comprehend the written material in the textbooks used in the school, students need help in developing their ability to read any other material of interest to them with ease and enjoyment. With careful guidance, most students will eventually turn to books freely and with a feeling of pleasure and perhaps read the literature of the English-speaking world in the original.

Before proceeding to the various techniques of reading, the teacher may find it helpful to consider the following suggestions, based on past observation and experimentation:

- Develop students' listening and speaking abilities before instructing them in reading. It is only after students can say material with reasonable fluency that they can really benefit from seeing. Therefore, lead them to understand that, in reading, they merely understand through their eyes the same material they have learned to understand through their ears.

- In reading, the reader vocalizes internally. A person will read faster, therefore, if he knows how to say the sounds without stumbling over them.

- Always read aloud to the students any reading to be assigned to them. Since English is not written the way it sounds in many cases, it is important that you read aloud. This will present reinforcement of *correct* sounds in their silent speech and help them to comprehend words they meet in their reading which they have heard spoken.

- Reading for the illiterate student or for one whose native language uses a different writing system presents special problems in eye movement and in recognition and discrimination of the letters of the alphabet and punctuation marks.

Reading is a complex skill. In order to read with understanding, ease, and enjoyment, adult students need to know the sounds of the language, its structure, and its vocabulary. In addition, they need to be familiar with any reference or allusion to aspects of culture.

Developing Reading Skills

How can students be helped to develop the skills they need to read independently? Following are several suggestions teachers may wish to use, depending on the students' needs:

- Help students gain increasing mastery of basic word attack skills such as recognizing initial and final consonants, recognizing consonant blends, and a progressive awareness of regular sounds and letter correspondences (hat/hate; fat/fate) and of silent letters (write, know, gnaw, pie).

- Help them enrich their vocabularies by giving them appropriate clues. These may be cognates (if their native language is one with similar word roots), paraphrases, antonyms, synonyms, or words of the same family (e.g., bed, bedspread, bedclothes, or jewelry, jeweler, jewelry store). Help them see little words in bigger words (policeman, dishwasher, storekeeper, statesman). Help them recognize prefixes (*un*kind, *un*able, *un*accustomed; *re*tell, *re*do) and suffixes (state*hood*, mann*ish*, democrat*ic*, friend*ship*, boy*hood*, quiet*ly*, slow*ly*). Help them guess meanings of words from the surrounding words (contextual clues). If possible, give the equivalent of abstract words in the native language of the students. Ask a bilingual speaker of the language for the definition of important abstract words which cannot be pictured and then say them to yourself, place them on the board, or have a student say them.

- In the same way, assist students to arrive at the meaning of the grammatical structures and give practice as needed.

- As simply as possible in English, and with the help of pictures and common everyday objects such as clocks, calendars, ticket stubs, and menus, give students some insight into the cultural allusions.

- Ensure comprehension in various ways:
  Ask different kinds of questions, based on the same sentence. For example, "John is an American." might be changed to *an inverted question* ("Is John an American?"), *question-word questions* with "who" and "what," (Who is an American?" "What is John?"), *why questions,* and *inferential questions* on the reading material ("What do you think...?" or "How do you think...?" "Why did...?").

- Ask questions, the answers to which the students can find verbatim in the material being read.

- Ask for a summary of a paragraph. (The summary should include the important ideas in the sequence in which they appear in the paragraph.)

- Ask for the main idea of the paragraph.

- Ask the students to find the specific words which describe a person or a procedure. (They give the words which the writer used to show that the person talked about was in a hurry or angry or that, in a recipe, the water was first boiled, etc.)

- Give sentences in the passage out of order and ask the students to rearrange them in the proper order.

- Gradually increase the students' speed: Read all passages aloud to them. Time them as they read silently. Judiciously decrease the time throughout the year. Discourage lip movements. Give them a definite purpose for reading. (For example, ask them to find the answer to some questions; some describing words; the title; the central thought; the steps in a process, etc.)

Before students can be expected to read unfamiliar passages, even with constant guidance and help, it is important that they learn to read the familiar material they can understand and say well or that they have memorized. The known material may be a dialog, a series of sequential sentences, or a simple story of an experience they have previously discussed and which the teacher has written on a chart or on the blackboard. In harmony with the *hear*, *say*, *see*, and *do* principle, the teacher might first remind the students that they know what the material is going to be, then say it, and have the students say it. Then the teacher might read the material aloud, as the students look at it, then help them read the material aloud in chorus. Later, groups and individuals might be asked to read it. (Oral reading by individuals should be done very judiciously. It is not desirable to expose the entire class or even a group of students to reading which may be halting and full of errors.)

It is best if reading is first introduced, as a visual recall of familiar material. If the time schedule and facilities permit, the teacher might wish to take a further intermediate step before free reading is begun--that of reworking the familiar material into different paragraphs or dialogs. Thus, the students may be helped to read these new combinations of familiar words and structures. For example, in one unit the teacher might have taught "May I have a pencil (a pen, etc.)?" and in another, "These are apples (oranges, etc.)." In recombining the material, the teacher might simulate a fruit-buying experience and help students read a dialog containing sentences such as, "May I have these oranges?" Even after these preliminary steps are carefully carried out over a period of days or weeks (depending on the background and ability of the students), it usually requires a year or more of guidance from the teacher before the students become completely competent readers.

Audiovisual techniques and materials are highly effective in teaching all areas of learning, no less in reading. The following suggestions may be helpful:

- The Blackboard: The material already learned audio-lingually is written on the board and covered before the class period. It is uncovered and read by the teacher with the class following silently or in a low voice. The material is read again by the teacher with the class attempting full simultaneous reading. This choral reading may be repeated until the students read smoothly.

- Flash Cards: Flash cards are good for a quick reading of isolated words, short idiomatic expressions and pronunciation drills, especially if these areas present particular difficulties. For further aid in pronunciation, the teacher may hold up the cards with individual phonetic or phonemic symbols as the students attempt to pronounce what they see. The back of the card may give the word in ordinary spelling as a check.

- Charts: Charts can be used for longer utterances. A single picture on a wall chart or a series of drawings can be synchronized with the statement to be read. After this has been read several times, the teacher can then pose questions which will elicit the statement written on the chart as the answer. This technique helps to give confidence to students who are learning to give correct answers to questions asked.

- The Overhead Projector: The same technique with the blackboard can be used with the overhead projector. The teacher can also have the students read one line at a time and concentrate on that while the rest of the text is covered and not seen. The teacher then can build up the reading of the text line by line.

- The Opaque Projector: The opaque projector takes any pages in a book or any sheet and reflects it on a screen in a darkened room. If the teacher wishes to show a paragraph, all that is needed is to place it in a tray under the projector, and it will be reflected on the screen. The darkened room forces the students to concentrate solely on the reading since the darkness interferes with writing and other class activities.

- The Tape Recorder: By hearing the text spoken, especially if read by another voice, the visual stimulus of the printed page in the student's hand is reinforced by the auditory. Obliged to listen, the student is trained to read at a given speed.

- Film or Slides: While a film or slide is being shown, a tape or a phonograph record can give a description of each slide or scene. He can see the slide or film, listen to the oral account and read it at the same time.

- The Phonograph: A phonograph may be used like the tape recorder. Since the student already has his copy of the lyrics, he can read and sing along with the recording.

- Magazines, newspapers, advertisements, placards, bulletins, all kinds of colorful cards and pictures can be used to vary and develop the reading process.

Intensive And Extensive Reading

When introducing unfamiliar material, most teachers find it desirable to work intensively with the students so that they understand *every* word and word sequence. This type of reading is commonly referred to as *intensive* reading. In later reading stages, the teacher may wish to have the students read with the single purpose of finding the central thought of the paragraph or page or to skim through the material to get the general idea of it. This type of reading is often labeled *extensive* reading.

Intensive Reading

- *Motivate the reading.* If it is a short anecdote or passage, relate it to the students' experiences through "you" questions. ("Have you ever ___?" "Do you___?" "Are you ___?" "Do you like to ___?") If the reading for the evening is part of a longer story, have students summarize and then ask "you" questions.

- *State the aim.* "Today we are going to read a story about ___." or "Today we shall see what happens to ___." or "Let's read this article to get this editor's point of view on the ___." Each lesson should have a specific aim.

- *Clear up difficulties in the passage.* "Before we read, let's look at (learn, study) some new words and expressions we may find in the story." This may be done in a number of ways:

    1. Prepare a list of new words, patterns, cultural items, and so on, and place them (or have them placed) on the chalkboard at the beginning of the period. Through such devices as pictures, panotomime, dramatization, synonyms, antonyms, and words of the same family, clarify and paraphrase the meanings of new words. Act as a model for the students in voicing the words and having them repeated by the students in chorus or by individuals both *before* and *after* their meanings are clarified.

    2. Briefly summarize the story using the new words, perhaps writing these words on the board while saying them. Then, either elicit the meanings from the students or give them in the procedure suggested above.

- *Read the passage and ask questions* to check comprehension. With students' books open, read the passage in sentence groups. (In latter stages students' books may be closed occasionally as a further check of listening comprehension.) Ask a question at the end of each sentence or short paragraph making sure that the answer to the question is contained verbatim or nearly verbatim in the text.

- *Elicit a summary* of the entire passage. One student may be called upon to summarize. Other students will be asked to suggest additions or corrections. Or, have a number of students give one sentence each, making sure that they maintain the sequence of the passage.

- *Extend learnings and correlate the reading with other language skills* by having students engage in activities such as those suggested below:

  Reading in chorus after the teacher

  Reading individually (more able students only)

  Completing sentences

  Determining whether statements are true or false

  Giving the correct sentence if the statement is false

  Answering questions based on the story, either orally or in writing in notebooks or on the chalkboard

  Writing a short summary in English

  Asking questions to be answered by their classmates

  Writing the new words in several original sentences

  Preparing an outline of the story

  Rewriting the story, changing the dialog into indirect discourse

  Selecting key sentences which illustrate certain characteristics or ideas

  Finding synonyms and antonyms of the new words

  Relating orally, or in writing, a similar personal episode

  Reconstructing the story from pictures in either oral or written form

  Placing sentences or pictures in the sequence in which they have occurred (particularly desirable with illiterates)

Extensive Reading

In several respects the extensive reading lesson differs from the intensive. While the motivation, the statement of aim, and the anticipation of difficulties follow the pattern of an intensive reading lesson, the structure or words not needed for comprehension will either not be mentioned or will be glossed over. The basic difference between both types of reading is that in extensive reading the passage is read *silently* by students after the teacher has read the passage aloud at normal speed for them. This procedure helps to assure that they will read silently with correct pronunciation and intonation. It is usual to set a time limit for the silent reading--one that is reduced gradually as students gain in language competency.

While students are reading, the teacher might place several questions, of the short-answer type, on the board for the students to answer. In this way, they will read with purpose and for meaning. After placing the work on the board, the teacher may help individual students or work with a group of students engaged in another type of language activity.

After the silent reading, students may be asked to complete orally the exercises which have been placed on the board. In addition, if time allows, they might engage in additional activities involving listening, speaking, reading, or writing.

How Can The Teacher Guide The Students' Writing?

Writing is the fourth skill students need to develop. However, the introduction of writing is possible only *after* students have developed aural-oral competency and some skill in reading. Unless the class members are all highly literate students who are ready for original or creative writing, the writing will need constant guidance and might proceed in such carefully graded steps as copying, substituting or replacing words (later, phrases) with others, completing sentences, answering questions, and writing a summary.

Before going into the several types of writing activities which give practice in correct responses and which help lead to more creative or original writing, the teacher might find useful the following general suggestions:

- Avoid having students practice their writing in class, unless they are completely illiterate. Rather devote class time primarily to listening and speaking, that is, to activities for which the students need continuous guidance.

- Give dictation and simple aural comprehension exercises of material which students can read regularly in class. Procedures for doing this will be explained below.

- Make sure that writing practice assignments also help reinforce the structural and vocabulary items which have been learned through the development of listening, speaking, and reading skills.

- Endeavor to correct all writing done by students, whether at home or in class, as quickly as possible.

Some activities which will strengthen the students' knowledge of form, function, and meaning of language items and which will contribute to their ability to write easily are the following:

- Write out in full the practice sentences they have repeated orally. For example, say "Use the words in the list to write sentences like the model."

  Model: I went to the supermarket.

  hospital

  shop

- Write out in full a number of new sentences using elements from several sentences. Say, "Write ten sentences using words from each column." (It is important to choose words carefully so that the combinations will be logical.)

I	wanted	some	oranges.
Joe	needed	a few	apples.
Mrs. Smith	paid for	a pound of	grapes.
The woman	asked for	a bag of	bananas.

- Change the sentences in a known dialog, short paragraph, or series of sentences as follows:

  Change the name of the person to the pronoun.

  Change the subject and verb to the plural.

  Change the plural to the singular.

  Change the time aspect by adding *yesterday* or *later* or *tomorrow*.

- Change the point of view of the paragraph. For example, change "I saw an apartment. It was bright and sunny. The rooms were large." to "I saw an apartment. It was dark and dirty. The rooms were small."

- Add newly learned structures and vocabulary where logical and appropriate to a known dialog.

- Answer a series of specific questions on any activity or on a reading passage. (Wherever possible, the questions should be in logical sequence.)

- Complete a series of related sentences. The completed sentences will constitute a short composition. For example:

I went to look for a _____. I went to the Agency. The man at the desk asked for my _____ and _____. He told me the job paid _____ an hour. He _____ me the name and address of the company.

- Write an outline of material which has been read.

- Write a summary of material which has been read.

- Write a letter (after the appropriate form has been taught and practiced) expanding ideas previously developed cooperatively. For example:

  "Write a letter to your brother. Tell him you have a job, that you like the job, and that your family is well. Ask him about his family."

- Write simple dialogs using familiar vocabulary and structure.

- Write a new ending to a story which has been read.

- Write an ending to a story which has not been completed.

As noted above, free writing is a difficult activity. Adult students need extensive help before they can be asked to go home and do any original writing. Some students may never be able to do so. Others, depending on their native literacy and on their years of living or study in the United States, may need from 1 to 4 years before being able to write anything but a series of carefully guided sentences.

When all the students, or perhaps a group of them, are ready to write more freely, the teacher may find the following prewriting steps helpful in avoiding numerous errors of spelling, punctuation, structure, and vocabulary choice. Careful initial guidance will elicit and reinforce correct responses and spare the students' feelings.

The following suggested procedure may be helpful:

- Select a topic. (The students may help suggest a topic based on something of interest which has or is about to occur.)

- Place the title on the board (top, center). Divide the board in thirds, titled "Column 1," "Column 2," and "Column 3."

- Engage in oral discussion of the topic. Have the students suggest several ideas for inclusion. (Have an able student--under as much direction as he needs--list these in Column 1 as they are given.)

- Discuss with the students the logical sequence of ideas. Have the ideas which were written at random in Column 1, listed in Column 2 (with adequate space between them) in the sequence in which they will be written.

- In Column 3, next to each idea, write the structures and vocabulary items needed to expand each idea. (Encourage the students to supply as many items as they can. Then supply others if needed.)
  - Pronounce the new words for the students.
  - Give numerous examples of each structure or of each word in an appropriate sentence.
  - Give brief pattern practice when time permits ("I'd like to be a carpenter." "I'd like to be a plumber." "I'd like to be a teacher.") using pictures, words, and other cues.

- Have individual students compose a few sentences under each idea. When this has been done, ask the students to write the first paragraph. As they write, move about, look at several papers, and ask one or two students to read to the group a paragraph which seems to be a good model.

Students will need several days to do any writing (such as reports and letters) at home. It helps if they are told when they might reasonably expect the teacher to return the corrected material. After indicating errors in their writing, the teacher might ask students to make the corrections and return the written work.

Short dictations, first on familiar material and then on combined new and familiar material, might be given once a week, or more often. Once students have been motivated and have had any difficulties explained to them, dictation may proceed at a normal speed. It is suggested that students not be asked to write during the first reading, but that the teacher dictate the material again, this time in *logical breath* groups. Students will write during this second dictation. (One or two students may do their writing on the chalkboard. Then it is suggested that the teacher say the material again at *normal* speed, give the students 1 or 2 minutes to look over their papers, and correct the material on the board with the students' cooperation.

Some teachers prefer to indicate punctuation marks during the second and third reading. Others feel that students ought to learn to write the punctuation marks by listening to the rise and fall of the voice. It is suggested here that the teacher indicate punctuation marks. It will also be helpful if, before starting to dictate, the teacher reviews orally, and on the chalkboard, the punctuation marks that will be needed for the dictation.

Another activity that may prove helpful in developing skills of listening and writing is the aural comprehension exercise. The paragraph chosen for this activity is best kept short, and, if possible, designed to express a complete idea about which the teacher can ask four or five questions, answers to which can be found, word-for-word (or nearly so), in the paragraph.

The suggested procedure for conducting an *aural comprehension* activity is as follows:

- Explain the passage by giving a brief summary of it.
- Clarify any difficulties.
- State the aim and the procedure to be followed.
- Read the entire paragraph twice at normal speed.
- Read a question twice. Give the students the opportunity to write the answer. (One or two students may write on the board.)
- Continue until all the questions have been given.
- Read the paragraph again at normal speed.
- Read the questions again at normal speed.
- Give the students 1 or 2 minutes to check their work.
- Correct the material with student cooperation.

What Are Some Helpful Books On Communication Skill Development?

In addition to the brief list of books mentioned below, the teacher may find other helpful books and/or articles listed in the bibliographies below. *A more extensive listing will be found in the accompanying Bibliography for Teachers of Americanization Classes.*

Bibliographies

Baker, Hugh S. A checklist of books and articles for teachers of English as a foreign language. New York. National Association for Foreign Student Affairs. 1959.

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Teaching English as a new language to adults. New York. New York City Board of Education. 1964.

Wallace, Betty. The pronunciation of American English for teachers of English as a second language. Ann Arbor, Mich. George Wahr. 1957.

CHAPTER 5

TEACHING THE CITIZENSHIP CONTENT

What Are Some Guidelines For Developing Citizenship Concepts?

Most teachers find it desirable to establish an informal, friendly atmosphere during the first session and maintain it throughout the entire program. The psychological principles underlying the learning process, discussed earlier in this handbook, may be incorporated into each lesson plan prepared. The road to learning a second language and a new and often different set of values is a long and arduous one for students. Guiding the student along this road may also be difficult for the teacher, requiring skill and dedication to master the required repertoire of techniques and to prepare the necessary variety of materials. The initial, intrinsic motivation which adult students bring to the learning situation may well be dissipated and lost if the teacher is not able to follow through adequately.

This chapter is concerned with some of the methods teachers in many centers have found effective for presenting to adult students the knowledge and information included in the curriculum related specifically to citizenship content as outlined in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 treated special techniques for developing communication skills. It will be obvious that much of what will be said in the present section is intimately related to the ability to listen, speak, read, and write. As has been stated before, language is not learned in a vacuum; that is, there is no language without content. Citizenship content is taught *through* language.

Using Varied Approaches

The skillful teacher knows that boredom may quickly set in if every step in the lesson can be anticipated because each step is a repetition of what has occurred in a previous session and in the session before that. Therefore, teachers usually find it stimulating to change the format of the lesson from time to time. Some activities might be of the "integrative" type--in which all students work together; some might be differentiating activities which enable individual students to work at their own pace. Sometimes the teacher may talk; other times the students may serve as teachers. It is usual to begin the citizenship study by discussing the student's new community, but, at times, the teacher might ask about the native customs and land of the students. All these approaches are good, and all may be tried at one time or another by the teacher.

Capitalizing On The Background And Experience Of The Student

The process of helping to develop participating members of the community will be simplified and enriched if the backgrounds and experiences of individual students are utilized. The teacher can assist the student in his adjustment to American life by acquiring a wider knowledge and a deeper appreciation of the students' educational, historical, political, economic, social, and cultural backgrounds.

Students enjoy talking about their previous experiences. The teacher might encourage each student to talk about his native land, his former schoolmates, and his country's history, culture, traditions, and government. Such discussion helps the student retain his sense of cultural identity while making the teacher aware of the background on which parts of the program may then be built. The teacher can also profit from hearing about problems of adjustment that the student is meeting.

In discussing the American form of government, for example, the teacher might find it helpful to be able to compare or contrast it with the form of government under which the student formerly lived. The study of the lives of American heroes and the significance of American holidays might include information about heroes in the native lands of the students.

Moreover, armed with the knowledge of the enviroment from which the students have come to the United States, the teacher may be more sympathetic to the problems the student faces in adjusting to his new environment. For example, a student who came from a small farm in his native country may have particular difficulty with the pressures, working hours, noise, and demands of working conditions in an urban setting. If a field trip to a museum is planned, it is valuable for the teacher to know about the student's previous contacts with art, history, science, sports, etc., in his native land. As holiday traditions and customs in this country are presented in lesson material, it is helpful to combine or contrast similar holiday observances and traditions of the students' native land.

Adapting Materials To The Students' Levels

Since students will represent varying levels of achievement in the speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills, the alert teacher will wish to provide for these differences in planning the presentation of citizenship materials. The teacher might plan the lesson material at two or more levels (for example, beginning, intermediate, and advanced), while maintaining an underlying common theme so that all the students can work together during some segments of the lesson.

For example, the students might be brought together during the first 5 minutes of class for a discussion of current events. Questions of varying degrees of linguistic difficulty might be asked, the more advanced questions being directed to the more advanced students.

To illustrate further, spelling lists for various learning levels might be placed in three different columns on the chalkboard. As the least advanced students work with the teacher, the other two groups might study the words they are to learn. As oral drills are done with the intermediate group, the members of the least advanced group might learn to write the words that they first said orally. The most able group might be asked to write their new words in statements or questions.

In addition to the group work at two or more levels which we have recommended, the teacher may also find it necessary to make provision for individual instruction. Individual instruction may be necessary to bring a student up to the level of a group if he lags behind, because he has been absent or has entered the class after the other students have made some progress. The skilled teacher may assist the student by individual instruction in reading; writing; by preparing "seatwork" material at his level; or by assigning a "buddy" to help him.

Using The Oral Approach

It is suggested that teaching methods in a citizenship class continue to emphasize listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills while civic information competencies are being developed. The students continue to need assistance in extending their vocabulary, in reading with increased comprehension, in writing more independently, and especially in communicating their thoughts more effectively.

The oral approach to each lesson has among its many aims the introduction of new vocabulary related to the citizenship concepts which may be needed in reading or writing, the motivation of interest in the reading or study period which follows, the discussion (at the students' level of ability) of current events or other aspects of citizenship content, and the dramatization of many dialogs on cultural or citizenship topics of interest.

For example, if a lesson on "How We Pay for Our Government" is to be presented, the teacher may develop such words as: *Income tax, property tax, sales tax,* helping to clarify meaning by showing a copy of an income tax form, a picture of a home, or a department store sales slip. The new vocabulary might be written on the chalkboard. The teacher might pronounce the new words, use them in sentences, and then ask the students to pronounce the words on the model.

They may be asked to use them in sentences. Naturally, the greatest benefit will be derived if all the new vocabulary appearing in the reading lesson should be presented prior to the reading.[1]

Engaging in Reading

Among the purposes for reading in the citizenship area are: (1) to enable students to reinforce and add to the information and concepts previously learned; (2) to express the information in the words of the text and in continued class discussion; (3) to use the information as an aid in their personal-social adjustment to the community.

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[1] More detailed procedures for teaching vocabulary and other aspects of the language arts are found in Chapter 4.

As previously stated, there are varied techniques for presenting the reading material. Again, it is important that the teacher read the selection orally to the students before they are asked to do any oral or silent reading. It is further suggested that any oral reading by students be kept brief. Finally, in order to give each student an opportunity to participate while avoiding embarrassment to students who cannot read well, it might be best to let these students read only to the teacher at his desk. The teacher might try to avoid students',dull, monotonous oral reading by indicating that they should read as though they were speaking to a friend.

Silent and oral reading may be combined in the following ways:

- The teacher might ask a question and have the students read silently in their citizenship textbooks until they find the answer. Then one student reads the answer to the group. The teacher may hold up a flash card or cue card on which is printed one of the new words introduced in the oral approach. The students then read silently until they find the statement containing the word on the card. One student is then asked to read the sentence aloud.

- Following intensive study of the lesson material, oral and silent reading may be combined as follows. Distribute slips of paper, some bearing questions and answers. The question slip might be green, while the answer slips might be yellow. One student reads a question from a green slip, and the student who believes he has the corresponding answer will read the statement from his yellow slip.

- The teacher might read the material while the students listen and then ask questions concerning the material that has been read. These questions may be designed to help students summarize or state the main ideas, find a specific bit of information, clarify a citizenship concept, or state the relationship of the material to citizenship practices or governmental processes in their community.

- For students at different levels of reading, the teacher might organize the same content on two or more levels of reading comprehension. Then one group might do oral reading with teacher guidance while the other groups read silently.

- Silent reading or study periods give the teacher a chance to move around the room helping individual students who need assistance. Some of the slower readers may have difficulty in the comprehension of some new words and may also need the encouragement that the teacher's individual assistance can give.

Making Written Work Functional

Written work may not be based on the reading material. Sometimes it grows out of any listening or speaking experience as well as out of reading. Writing activities are most effective when they are based on the practical needs of the students. For example, students often need to fill out employment or housing forms, write letters of application for housing or jobs, or write letters asking for services of various kinds. In addition to writing exercises based on these activities, students might spend some time writing new vocabulary words, not only in isolation but in varied types of materials. Written work based on the citizenship content might include multiple choice exercises, completion statements, summaries of highlights of the lesson, biographies of famous people, and stories about holidays or customs.

Summarizing The Evening's Work

Before the end of any citizenship class session, there is usually a summary of the highlights of the lesson taught. These highlights could include five or six important points to be remembered from the lesson. They might be presented orally by the teacher and/or the students through questions and answers, or they might be written on a chart or on the chalkboard for the students to copy into their notebooks.

How Are Discussion Techniques Developed?

Discussion is an important part of the citizenship education. During discussion periods students can be encouraged to agree or disagree in the American town-meeting tradition as they discuss questions related to the text, current events, and community problems. As the discussion proceeds, the teacher might make note of and call attention briefly and tactfully to gross errors in vocabulary or structure. Any errors which seem to occur frequently among students might later be made the subject of a direct lesson designed to eradicate the error and give intensive practice in the correct form. Persistent errors will need individual treatment. In the discussion period, however, it is suggested that the primary aim be that of encouraging the free exchange of thought and opinion.

Continued discussion will emphasize the importance of the listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills and will emphasize, for the students, the need for careful and concentrated listening. As citizens active in their community, they will want to be able to relate what they hear to what they know, evaluate what they hear, note inaccuracies, biased statements, or opinions cited as facts, and, on the basis of their listening, respond to further the thinking of the group.

It will normally be the teacher's responsibility to guide the discussion and to elicit maximum student participation. Often, a teacher-student question-and-answer period can be used to stimulate good discussion. It is helpful if, in advance of the discussion, the teacher has noted certain key topics and questions on the chalkboard which may be used to start and structure the discussion.

Asking and preparing students to participate as discussion leaders is an excellent device to develop initiative and confidence in the students and help prepare them for participation and leadership roles in community groups, parents associations, and other organizations. The student discussion leader should prepare in advance by reading pertinent material and framing questions for discussion.

It is important that students have an opportunity to participate in the discussion, that they be given time to think before responding to questions, and that they be allowed to participate at their ability level. The good discussion leader will tactfully control the student who tries to go off on a tangent. This may be done by making a remark such as, "That's a good point. We'll come back to that in a few minutes (or at our next meeting)." The shy student can be drawn into the activity with a statement such as "What do you think Mr. _____? Do you agree with Mr. _____ (the previous speaker)?" The discussion leader will then decide whether to be content with a simple "yes" or "no," or whether to elicit further responses by asking "why?"

A good discussion leader will not accept an answer to a question too quickly. Discussion is fostered if the leader says: "Yes, but let us see what others think. Does everyone agree, or are there some students who disagree? Tell us why you agree or disagree."

The good discussion is conducted in a "give and take" climate, where each student's opinion is respected. In fact, as an activity, a good discussion might be compared to a ball game. If the ball is thrown by the teacher to a student and then back to the teacher by the student who caught it, the activity will turn into a simple question-and-answer period. However, if the ball is thrown from teacher to student, back to the teacher, perhaps, or to another student, from that student to another student, and criss-crosses the room from one student to another, occasionally returning to the leader, the experience will take on the dimensions of a good discussion.

The discussion leader will need some assistance in the form of instructional material to stimulate discussions. A picture that tells a story and is large enough to be put up in the front of the room so that all students may see it clearly, is a good discussion stimulant. The picture might be a large reproduction of a well known contemporary painting; for example, a painting of one of the Four Freedoms. Posters announcing community events are also timely stimulants.

Thought-provoking quotations also provide excellent springboards for discussion. The quotation may be written on the chalkboard and the students stimulated to react to it. In addition, large charts on which discussion topics are listed or rough sketches drawn may be used not only to motivate discussion but also to draw conclusions from a discussion. For example, if the topic "Paying for Our Government" is being discussed, summaries of the main benefits individuals receive from Federal, state, and local taxes might be printed on a chart.

To provide material for discussion, the textbook reading might be supplemented by other sources of information such as the daily newspaper, selected radio and TV programs, pamphlets, leaflets, pertinent film strips and slides, and workbooks. Many free pamphlets are available in quantity from government and other agencies. Individual students may be asked to read different pamphlets which will give them different points of view or facts. This procedure will stimulate students to examine and express ideas.

What Additional Techniques May Be Utilized?

Dramatization

Students might dramatize such activities as a job interview, a shopping experience, and a naturalization session.

Role-playing

A group of students might spontaneously work out a situation in which they assume roles--such as a situation in which a controversial community issue is discussed. One student might take the role of the mayor; another that of the irate taxpayer; another that of the interested business man in favor of the issue; another that of the interested housewife, and so on. Students will benefit from having the opportunity to express their thoughts and feelings. Also, such role-playing will enable the teacher to observe differences in the ability of individual students to react or to communicate.

Variations In Oral And Silent Reading

- Distribute to individual students, slips of paper containing the first words of a statement related to citizenship; have the student read what is on the slip and complete the statement.
- Ask one student to formulate a question; then have another read the answer to the question from the citizenship material.
- To motivate silent reading, place on the chalkboard questions to which students have to find the answers.
- Use the overhead projector to project a question on the screen; the students read the question orally in concert, or individually, and then one student is asked to give the answer.

Worksheets

Samples of worksheets will be found in the Appendix.

The following are a few suggested drills for various ability levels:

Choosing an item when several are given, completing sentences, filling in blanks, indicating whether statements are true or false, rearranging words listed in columns in correct order to make a statement or a question, matching words with pictures, and matching pictures with statements.

How Can Community Agencies Serve As Resources?

There is a wealth of community resources that may be tapped in order to bring speakers or materials into the classroom; for example, such community agencies as the Fire, Police, Health, and Sanitation Departments; government agencies; industries. As potential functioning citizens in the community, state, and Nation, the students need to be made familiar with persons, services, and agencies outside the school building. In addition, students might be asked to suggest speakers they would like to invite. Many such speakers will provide films and filmstrips and participate in discussion periods. It goes without saying that speakers will be most effective when they speak at the students' level.

The above-mentioned community agencies are often willing to provide opportunities for students to visit them. In addition, many factories, industrial plants, cultural institutions, and government agencies will be happy to receive groups of students and provide guided tours if these are requested in advance.

Extremely effective resources are naturalized citizens who can be asked to share their experiences with the students and who can talk about the benefits they have enjoyed as citizens of the United States. It might also be impressive to invite a judge from a naturalization court or a naturalization examiner to come to the class, talk with the students, and explain the naturalization process.

How Can An Informal Classroom Climate Be Maintained?

An effective learning experience presupposes the existence of an informal atmosphere in the classroom. Adult students will enjoy an element of surprise and some purposeful, creative activity in the learning process. What are some of the elements that promote cooperation and friendship in the classroom?

The successful teacher is informal, but dignified, broadminded, tolerant, patient, understanding, knowledgeable, and prepared. The progress of the group will depend on the teacher's skill in imparting knowledge, in motivating and encouraging the students, in establishing rapport, and in sharing with the students their interests, aspirations, experiences, problems, and successes. Empathy on the part of the teacher is a valuable asset.

The student in the adult classroom needs to experience a feeling of security and status. He needs to feel that his dignity and personal worth are recognized and respected both by the teacher and by other class members.

Although it is important that the teacher's effort be directed toward helping the adult student become an effective, responsible citizen and a participating member of American society, it is equally important that the teacher avoid doing this at the cost of the student's pride or feeling of status. He will, for example, need to be reminded that he is not expected to discard his native language and many of his customs. He will need constant reassurance that "different from" does not mean "inferior to." One way to provide such reassurance might be to encourage him to speak his native language to his friends during break or rest periods. Indeed, the teacher who knows some words in the native language of his students, may also use them at this time. However, the teacher must be aware of the danger of speaking the language of one group of students and not that of the others. This can become a breeding ground for feelings of frustration, prejudice, and inadequacy. Needless to say, all students should be encouraged to speak English at all times since they have to learn and want to learn how to function in the new environment. The teacher, by immersing his class in the new language and its culture, assures the learner of what may not be available to him anywhere else: a sustained period of time in which English is the sole means of communication with those about him. A sense of belonging in the class group may be stimulated by wide student participation, using such teaching techniques as choral repetition and listening to recordings.

Since the adult foreign-born student is frequently timid about expressing his needs and interests, the understanding teacher will try to create an environment in which the student feels free to talk about them. As each student realizes that others face problems similar to his, and that the teacher can often provide specific answers to some of these, he will become increasingly encouraged to share his doubts and hopes with the class.

An informal classroom environment offers the teacher frequent opportunities to remain in the background and to allow the learner to act as teacher. This will increase the feeling of status and recognition among the students and will give them the idea that they share responsibility in the learning process. In addition, students might be encouraged to formulate questions to ask their classmates, while the teacher serves as a guide, standing ready to assist if needed.

The teacher might make use of any special abilities or talents possessed by the students. For example, a student might serve as interpreter. Caution is needed, however, to insure only the judicious use of the native language for brief explanations and to preclude its continued use as a crutch upon which students might become dependent. In some instances, the more able students can provide the teacher with clues as regarding special difficulties presented by English vocabulary word order, or word form to speakers of another language. Students who play instruments, sing, paint, dance, or have some other special ability might be encouraged to display such abilities on occasions created by the teacher.

Student leadership and participation can be developed through class discussions. An interesting and productive learning experience may take place if students participate as discussion leaders and the teacher participates as a member of the discussion group. The teacher might give assistance to the students *in advance* of their participation as discussion leaders, to enable them to approach the experience with a background of knowledge and a feeling of security and to maintain the respect of their classmates.

What Are Some Helpful Sources For Developing The Citizenship Content?

Books

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National Association for Public School Adult Education. How adults learn more--faster. Washington, D. C. The Association. 1961.

National Association for Public School Adult Education. When you're teaching adults. Washington, D. C. The Association. 1959.

United States Immigration and Naturalization Service. Teacher's guide. Becoming a citizen series. Books 1, 2, 3. Washington, D. C. United States Government Printing Office. 1964.

Periodicals

National Association for Public School Adult Education. Washington, D. C. Techniques. Monthly (October through May). $3.00.

CHAPTER 6

PLANNING FOR LEARNING

The learning process is more likely to be successful if the teacher tries to make each step of every lesson flow naturally into the next one--indeed, serve as a preparation for it--and make each part fit into an overall plan.

What Might Be Included In The First Lesson?

The first meeting with a class of adults presents a challenge both to the experienced teacher and to the novice. The impression the student forms concerning his ability to interact with the teacher, his classmates, and the local learning environment may affect his attitude toward the entire program. It is not unusual for an adult student to drop out after the very first session if something causes him distress or uneasiness.

What are some of the things the teacher might do during the first session to get acquainted with each member of the class and to create a friendly atmosphere? The first step might be to greet each person and say, "Good evening." Of course, during the first session, it is not unusual for students to experience delays in locating the classroom so that they do not all arrive on time. When the teacher starts the lesson only a part of the class may be on hand. Therefore, a certain amount of repetition may be needed, in order to include all later arrivals.

The teacher may want to form different groups of students in the class for greater interaction, stimulation, and interest. This interaction can take place in three different situations: person to person, person to group, and group to group. The first is illustrated by a conversation, the second by a teacher giving a lecture, the third by a game.

Little by little more and more stress should be placed on pupil activity. The learner should be allowed to plan and carry out as much of the work as possible with the teacher acting merely as an inspiring and encouraging guide and counselor. It is up to the teacher to vary the interaction and permit different students and different groups to assume the direction of the class activities. How can this be done?

- The teacher can group his students according to sex. Debates, discussions, conversations, competitive games can be handled by these groups.

- The teacher can group his pupils according to their seating arrangement. Spelling bees, practice drills, dialog repetition, question-and-answer drills are possible for this kind of grouping.

- The teacher can group his students according to their interests, talents, or hobbies. Those pupils with the same interests can work together on a project and present it to the other groups. Topics for group work can include cooking, folk songs, current events, foreign stamps, and sports.

- The teacher can group his students according to their abilities or motivation. The ones who handle the language well can pool their resources and help those who may be having particular difficulties.

- The teacher can encourage his students to arrange their own groups. Groups will naturally form with those from the same national or cultural background. An oral report, a joint effort of each student in the group, can be presented to the other groups. If the report is formal, the students can select their own spokesman; if the report is informal, each member can participate.

In any event, the resourceful and imaginative teacher will soon discover the interests and abilities of his students and will utilize them in a manner that is conducive to the practical, thought-provoking, satisfying, and pleasurable aspects of learning.

If the class knows little or no English, it will take some time before they understand what is meant when the teacher points to himself and says, "My name's _______." To clarify, the teacher might produce some piece of identification, such as a Social Security card, driver's license, or passport. Pointing to the signature or picture and to himself he may say, "My name's _______."

The following are some suggestions how to proceed with introductions:

- Call the student's name. Have (him) stand. Point to your mouth indicating you want him to say something. Have (him) say, "My name's _______."

- Have each student stand, face the class and say, "My name's _______."

- As each student stands, walk to (him) and say, "Good evening, Mr. (Mrs., Miss) _______."

- For a beginning class, plan a simple conversation related to greetings which the students can learn and dramatize. An example would be:

  Student 1: "Good evening, Miss Smith."

Student 2: "Good evening, Mr. Jones."

Student 1: "How are you?"

Student 2: "Fine, thank you."

In more advanced classes, in addition to a dialog such as the one above, the students might be asked to give their names and ask one another questions in chain fashion. Such questions as, "What's your name? Where do you live? Do you have a telephone? What's your telephone number?" might be appropriate. In anticipation of possible sensitivity, the teacher might write fictitious addresses and telephone numbers on the chalkboard to serve as content for the chain practice.

Following the oral chain drill, more advanced students might also be asked to write out information about themselves on cards or slips of paper the teacher has previously prepared:

Class Card

School__________________ Date ________

My name is ___________________________

I live at ____________________________

My telephone number is ______________

On this first evening, the teacher may wish to teach (or review) one or more simple patterns such as "What's this?" and introduce some of the drills planned for use throughout the semester. The content might be related to identification. For example, using labeled pictures of people, the teacher might engage students in (1) repetition drills, such as: "Good morning, Mr. (Mrs., Miss) _______." while pointing to each picture; (2) substitution drills with the teacher's oral cue or the written word as a cue (see p. 64 for the procedure); or (3) replacement drills, such as "The man's name is Mr. Jones."; "He's Mr. Jones."; or "His name is Mr. Jones."

Also at this time, pronunciation practice might well be begun for all levels. After concert practice of the dialog, one or two vowel sounds of English might be introduced as a possible first lesson in pronunciation. Accompanying pictures to help students associate sound and meaning might also be helpful. Chapter 4 contains further detailed information about pronunciation practice.

Illiterate students and those whose writing system is different from English might begin practice writing in manuscript. The teacher might print each name at the top of a sheet of paper and have the students first trace the name and then write it several times, using the teacher's copy and *not* their own writing as their guide.

To summarize this first lesson, the teacher might ask each student to stand and identify himself ("We don't want to forget each other's names."), have pairs of students dramatize the dialog, and engage in a brisk substitution or replacement drill.

Below are several suggestions which the teacher may find useful.

- Prepare a detailed flexible plan for the first evening. Plan for more than can possibly be achieved and have alternate activities ready to keep the class profitably occupied. Some activities may take less time to cover or may not meet the educational levels, English knowledge, needs, or interests of the group.
- Bring to class paper, pencils, chalk, a marking pen, white shelf paper, and cards for names.
- Reinforce any correct response with praise.
- Create a friendly atmosphere.
- Establish some routines for seating, for distributing and collecting materials, and for answering in chain fashion.
- Get the students to do most of the talking. Except for the time when each student says his name, engage the entire class in choral repetition. (Some shy students may not wish to respond individually and expose themselves to the possible criticism of their peers.)
- Through the short, summary review near the close of the lesson, leave the student with the feeling that he has learned something, whether it is how to identify himself or how to ask someone else's name and address. The choice of what to teach him the first evening will depend to a great extent on the amount of English he already knows, but make sure he feels he has learned something new.

What Might Be Included In Every Lesson?

- Warmup or oral discussion (one or more of the following):
  - Recital of known material (dialogs, poems, songs, drills)
  - Happenings in the students' day
  - Current events
- Pronunciation practice (one or more of the following):
  - Individual sounds
  - Contrasting sounds
  - The vowel triangle (see Appendix)
  - Intonation of sentences and utterances

- Stress of words, phrases, or sentences
- Rhythm of sentences

- New material development
  - Motivation
  - Statement of aims elicited from the students or stated by the teacher
  - Review of related material on which the lesson is based
  - Oral presentation by the teacher (of language items, reading material, citizenship facts)
  - Repetition practice (group and then individual, based on the teacher's model at all times)[1]
  - A model summary (or in the case of the teaching structure, *description* of the word from and/or word order with emphasis on *form, function,* and *placement* in the sentence)
  - Practice--listening, speaking, reading, or writing activities (at the students' levels of ability) related to either new or familiar material or a combination of new and known material
  - A summary of the high points of the new material

- A summary review of known material reinforcing knowledge of a song, a poem, a dialog, citizenship facts, quotations, or oral reading of thoroughly familiar material

The teacher may find it helpful, in *all* lessons at *all* learning levels, to include provision for a *warmup, pronunciation practice,* and a *review of known material.* The portion of the plan devoted to new material may be divided in a number of ways, depending on the language level of the students and the material to be taught.

No lesson plan need ever be so rigidly set up that it cannot include attention to incidental happenings, review of material that had not been thoroughly internalized by the students in previous lessons, or unexpected questions or problems. Therefore, it will be helpful if space is provided in the lesson plan so that the teacher can conveniently write in any additions or adaptations.

The formats outlined below are offered as models which teachers may wish to follow, making whatever alterations seem appropriate or necessary.

What Might Be The Format For A Lesson Emphasizing Language Structure?

I. General Aim

A. Linguistic
B. Citizenship (sociocultural information)

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[1] This technique is recommended primarily for language lessons.

II. Specific Aims

- A. Language items to be taught intensively:
  - 1. Basic patterns
  - 2. Vocabulary
- B. Cultural or citizenship concepts to be developed

III. Lesson Development

- A. Warmup (all groups)
- B. Pronunciation practice (all groups)
- C. Review of known material on which new lessons will be based
- D. Presentation of new material
  - 1. All groups
    - a. Motivation
    - b. Development (including medial summary or "Generalization")
    - c. Practice
    - d. Summary
  - 2. Subgroups
    - a. Activities for beginning level (e.g. copying patterns, spelling)
    - b. Activities for more advanced level (e.g. combining pattern elements, taking dictation)
- E. Summary (all groups come together)
- F. Dialog(s) for dramatization (all groups)

IV. Materials required

V. Notes for future lessons (reminders of learnings to be emphasized in a future lesson, etc.)

What Might Be The Format For A Lesson Emphasizing Discussion?

I. Specific Aims

- A. Linguistic
  - 1. Basic sentences (needed to develop citizenship discussion)
  - 2. Vocabulary (related to discussion)
- B. Citizenship

II. Lesson Development

- A. Warmup (all groups)
- B. Pronunciation practice (all groups)
- C. Review of known material (on which the new lesson is to be based)
- D. Development of new material (all groups)
  - 1. Linguistic
    - a. Motivation, statement of aim, related review
    - b. Activities: listening, speaking, reading, writing
  - 2. Citizenship activities
    - a. Discussion

        - b. Question-and-answer (student leader, panel, role playing)
        - c. Summarizing
  - E. Individualized group instruction
    - 1. Beginning level (answering questions)
    - 2. Advanced level (formulating questions, outlining, or summarizing)
  - F. Summary of the lesson (all groups come together)
  - G. Dialogs for dramatization (all groups)--citizenship topics

III. Materials Required

IV. Notes

What Might Be The Format For A Lesson Emphasizing Reading?

I. Aims

- A. Linguistic--to develop the student's ability to read with ease and enjoyment
- B. Citizenship--to guide the student to gain knowledge of facts through reading

II. Development of New Lesson

- A. Warmup (all groups)
- B. Pronunciation practice (all groups)
- C. Development of new material
  - 1. Oral discussion of topic
    (The teacher motivates by relating the reading to students' experiences and/or to the previous reading, of which this lesson is a continuation.)
  - 2. Reading (two groups)
    (The teacher works intensively with one group, as will be explained in the next section.)
    - a. Clarification of difficulties in the reading (pronunciation, structure, vocabulary facts)
    - b. Oral reading by the teacher, followed by questions to ensure comprehension
    - c. Summary of the reading
  - 3. Followup activities (according to ability)
    - a. Reading in chorus after the teacher
    - b. Copying the new words
    - c. Using new words in original sentences
    - d. Engaging in word study (synonyms, antonyms, derived words)
    - e. Dramatizing a portion of the story (where logical)
    - f. Preparing dialog from the narrative paragraphs
- D. Summary of the lesson (all groups)

III. Materials Required

IV. Notes

How Might Subgroups Be Organized?

However homogeneously students have been grouped with relation to language ability, they will differ in such factors as educational background, motivation, natural intelligence, time for study, or time of arrival into the class. Grouping of students is, therefore, indispensable.

Some teachers find it difficult to manage more than one group. Others find two or even three groups easy to plan for. The following suggestion for organizing groups may be useful.

- Plan to present as much content as possible to the entire class as a group. To give all class members a sense of belonging to a group, have integrative activities (those having a common objective) always precede differentiated activities.
- At the end of the evening, bring the whole class together again, not only to share the results of their different activities, but to promote their sense of membership in the class.
- Avoid having more than two major subgroups at any one time. Also, be prepared to provide additional individual instruction for some students, or make provision for organizing another subgroup for certain activities such as spelling, handwriting, pronunciation of specific sounds, or practicing of patterns.
- Start group activities with one group. Let other students watch you as you develop routines with this group.
- Train the second group only after the first group can work independently.
- Train group leaders from among your more able students.
- Place assignments for each group clearly on the chalkboard.
- Provide individual and/or group worksheets. (Samples will be found in the Appendix.)
- Prepare charts clearly outlining group and individual responsibilities.

How Might Activities For Groups And Subgroups Be Planned?

On the following page is a suggested 3-week plan which teachers might wish to use as a model for teaching two groups on a schedule of three times a week. If the school is one in which classes meet only once a week, the teacher may find it preferable to work with both groups during every session. If, on the other hand, classes meet more than three times a week, the teacher might modify the plan accordingly.

FIRST WEEK

STEPS	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
I. Warmup	Entire Class	Entire Class	Entire Class
II. Pronunciation drill	Teach Group I	Teach Group II	Teach Group I
III. Oral Discussion	Entire Class	Entire Class	Entire Class
IV. Development of new material	Teach Group II	Teach Group I	Teach Group II
V. Summary	Entire Class	Entire Class	Entire Class

SECOND WEEK

STEPS	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
I, III, V	Entire Class	Entire Class	Entire Class
II. Pronunciation drill	Teach Group II	Teach Group I	Teach Group II
IV. Development of new material	Teach Group I	Teach Group II	Teach Group I

CHAPTER 7

MAKING LEARNING MORE VITAL

Throughout this handbook, emphasis has been placed on the need for providing students with a wealth of experiences which utilize their backgrounds and help them associate the new with the familiar. It has been pointed out, too, that adult students who may come to school tired or frustrated from the day's work or family problems, need a stimulating classroom atmosphere in which they feel they are achieving their goals. These considerations place upon the teacher the responsibility of providing the students with many meaningful experiences and activities; and of selecting and using varied teaching materials and techniques judiciously.

Why Is A Variety Of Experiences Important?

All activities included in the Americanization lessons are designed to contribute to the two principal goals of the program: helping each student develop progressive ability in the use of one or more of the language skills and gradually increasing each student's ability to gain insight into the social and cultural situations which are of concern to him as a functioning member of an English-speaking community. It is important therefore to provide a well-rounded, varied, stimulating series of activities leading not only toward the student's increasing control of English and more freedom in the ability to converse, read, and write, but also toward the personal-social adjustment each individual needs to make to his new home.

No specific suggestions will be offered as to the levels (beginning, intermediate, or advanced) at which the activities listed below should be used; the teacher may vary their use depending upon the class, the circumstances, and the students' strengths and weaknesses. For example, an activity such as listening to a radio broadcast might be deferred until the students have attained a fair level of achievement in language, unless the broadcast is at a fairly primary level. On the other hand, so basic an activity as labeling pictures would not be especially suitable or productive for students who already have a reasonable grasp of English. It is important that selection of material, activity, and experience be appropriate to the student's place on the continuum of achievement in each language strand.

Although all the language activities--hearing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing--are integrated in actual communication, it is often more desirable and more efficient to give practice in each skill separately. The activities below are categorized according to the abilities to which each makes the greatest contribution. Some overlapping, of course, is inevitable. Not included in this list are the ordinary classroom directions such as "Open your books," "Repeat," and "Write." These are normally in English from the very beginning of the term and they are repeated so often that there is no need to make special mention of them as language activities.

In the beginning stages of language learning, emphasis is usually placed primarily on listening and speaking. Even later, after reading has been introduced, listening and speaking activities will still constitute an important part of the lesson. As a matter of fact, a reading lesson presented along the lines of the model suggested above, can serve as an excellent source for numerous listening and speaking activities.

It is helpful for the teacher to avoid having the students write extensively in class, except for dictations and aural comprehension exercises. What writing is done might well be preceded and followed by listening, speaking, and reading activities.

What Are Some Basic Listening And Speaking Activities?[1]

Listening

- Listening to the teacher during all phases of the session
- Listening to other students give directions or ask questions
- Distinguishing between contrasting sounds in lists of words or sentences
- Listening to outside speakers or to other school personnel
- Listening to phonograph records, tape recordings, sound films, and television and radio programs
- Interviewing such people as the principal, local policeman, and local fireman
- Attending lectures, conferences, and meetings
- Participating in discussion groups
- Going to the movies and to the theatre

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[1] Activities are not listed in order of priority.

- Engaging in a sustained conversation with someone on a topic not previously prepared or discussed (This is the essence of real communication ability.)

Speaking

- Repeating words, phrases, or sentences with the class, group, or row
- Repeating individually words, phrases, or sentences
- Responding to directions given by the teacher or another student
- Formulating directions for other students; for example, "Show us the _____."
- Answering questions based on any class or out-of-class experience (The response required should be made increasingly longer as students gain more control of the language.) For example:

  Q. "Did you like the movie?"

  A. "Yes, I did."

  Q. "Did you like the movie?"

  A. "Yes, I did. I liked it very much."

  Q. "Did you like the movie?"

  A. "Yes, I did. I liked it very much. The story was very exciting."

- Formulating questions to ask the teacher or other pupils with "wh" question words ("who," "when," "where," "what," "whose," "which," "how much," "how many," etc.)
- Preparing original sentences based on words or language patterns
- Telling what appears in a picture or on a chart
- Engaging in transformation exercises, such as changing *singular* to *plural, simple present* to *past, indicative* to *interrogative, affirmative* to *negative*
- Telling a favorite story, joke, or experience in their own words
- Giving reports on a prepared topic
- Summarizing a paragraph, an article, or a book
- Dramatizing a dialog, a situation, or a play

- Participating in a discussion, a forum, a panel, or a similar oral group activity
- Conducting a discussion or a panel
- Making tape recordings of their role-playing, pattern responses, or songs
- Engaging in conversation
- Engaging in role-playing (a job interview, apartment hunting, shopping, protesting spoiled or dirty food, complaining about lack of heat in the apartment)
- Discussing subjects of interest (e.g. finding and keeping a job, finding a home, utilizing resources in the community, guiding their children's education, exploring ways of increasing income)
- Reading a book in one's native language and giving an oral summary of it in English

What Are Some Basic Reading And Writing Activities?[1]

Reading

- Reading words and sentences from the chalkboard or experience charts
- Reading familiar material
- Reading unfamiliar textbook materials
- Reading newspapers and magazines
- Learning to use tools of research such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, maps, graphs, and charts
- Engaging in any of the activities previously listed under "Reading"

Writing

- Copying from the board into notebooks (e.g. pattern drills, questions and answers, experiences charts)
- Writing known words when two or three letters are given
- Completing sentences where a choice of words is given

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[1] See also the miscellaneous reading and writing activities listed on pp. 72-79.

- Filling in blanks with a subject word, verb, adjective, adverb, or other
- Regrouping sentences by placing them in chronological or logical order
- Choosing the unrelated word from a group of four words
- Making complete sentences by matching fragments from one column with related fragments from another
- Alphabetizing lists of names
- Engaging in transformation exercises such as changing *past* to *present*, *declarative* to *interrogative*, and so on
- Answering questions based on the reading or on other experiences
- Writing dialogs or narrative passages from dialogs
- Preparing reports on individual research activities
- Filling out business and official forms
- Writing social letters
- Preparing labels or captions
- Engaging in an aural comprehension exercise followed by written response
- Assisting in the preparation of instructional materials such as flashcards, board slips, and worksheets
- Writing paragraphs on topics of interest
- Taking dictation
- Writing short autobiographies emphasizing their interests

What Other Activities Might Be Effective?

- Making and labeling maps of their immediate community
- Preparing scrapbooks (transportation, clothing, others)
- Locating places of interest on original or commercial maps
- Playing language games

- Going on trips to where English is spoken, such as factories, city hall, and community centers
- Visiting homes of English-speaking people (These visits should be arranged by the school, whenever possible.)
- Learning to alphabetize
- Finding addresses and telephone numbers in a telephone book
- Learning to use the Yellow Pages of the telephone book
- Preparing, reading, and interpreting road maps
- Learning to give and follow directions in going from one place to another
- Learning to use various parts of a book (the table of contents, index, bibliography)
- Solving arithmetic and "money" problems, for example:

    computing costs for a trip

    preparing a family budget

    learning to read timetables

    learning to read bills (gas, electric, telephone)

    learning to read recipes

    learning to read directions in "do-it-yourself" manuals

    learning to read a thermometer

    learning units of weight and measurement

    learning to compare two objects in size and weight

    learning to compute sales tax, income tax, social security tax, and withholding tax

    learning to prepare income tax forms

- Looking at film strips and preparing appropriate captions, statements, or questions for each frame of the filmstrip
- Listening to community workers and to resource persons (e.g., a banker telling about kinds of accounts available, procedures for opening an account, borrowing, and other banking services)

- Sending a letter requesting job application forms

- Listing occupations in the community (This may be done orally and in writing.)

- Giving examples of training and abilities needed for various occupations

- Studying job applications and learning how to answer them

- Answering questionnaires regarding jobs, apartments, services (Practice may be given both orally and in writing.)

- Asking for job information over the telephone

- Interviewing a worker in the individual's field of interest and telling the class about it

- Making lists of occupations and services rendered by each student to the community

- Listing jobs students have held in their native land

- Interviewing resource persons (e.g. librarian resources of occupational information) and making a report to the class

- Conducting mock interviews for jobs, apartments, and so on

- Listing job opportunities and requirements found in the native language newspaper and in English speaking newspapers

- Preparing a list of qualifications and the vocabulary needed for a desired job (drill press operator--*tool, die, drill, bore, mold, form, to punch, to bore,* etc.)

- Writing biographies of successful people, United States celebrities from their native country or from their new community

- Bringing in newspaper clippings related to jobs or union activities and summarizing their contents

- Discussing ways of getting better jobs (continued general schooling, learning specific skills, improving English)

- Writing brief descriptions of places in the community or the city

- Learning to read a driver's manual

- Learning to read and interpret labels on food and other packages

- Learning to read contracts (leases, insurance policies, warranties)

- Learning to read instructions (use and care of appliances)
- Writing various kinds of letters (applying for a job, answering an advertisement, asking for service, complaining about service, protesting an injustice, requesting materials, buying something from a catalog, returning something purchased, asking for time extension on a payment)
- Learning to read the index to find articles in various sections of a newspaper
- Learning to evaluate television and radio programs by discussing their reactions and establishing criteria
- Preparing dialogs (possible conversation with: a teacher regarding one's child's progress, a storekeeper whose food is dirty or of poor quality, a landlord who does not supply needed services, an employer)
- Singing songs
- Reciting poetry
- Reading descriptive literature about places of interest in and out of the community or in the students' native countries
- Reading plays aloud (Note: Plays such as "Our Town" and "You Can't Take it With You" are generally well liked.)
- Utilizing the musical talents of students in preparing a musical evening
- Preparing and producing original skits
- Preparing word puzzles
- Playing more difficult language games such as scrabble, anagrams, crossword puzzles
- Discussing educational opportunities for children
- Participating in many activities in which governmental procedures are explained and practiced (voting for a class president or representative, simulating a scene at election polls, appearing in court to answer a summons)

How Can Various Activities Be Related In One Unit?

A Unit For Beginners Or Intermediates On Buying Furniture

In addition to language drills in which such basic patterns as "What's this?" "It's a _____." "What are these?" "They're _____." "Point to how many." and "Do you have _____?" are reinforced, the following experiences might be used to provide extensive language learning and cultural insights. (The teacher might do some of the preliminary work, such as cutting out pictures and preparing charts.)

- Cut out pictures of furniture from newspapers and magazines and tell the class about them.
- Group pictures under categories (bedroom, living room, kitchen).
- Bring in miniature or toy items of furniture and set up room arrangements.
- Place pictures of furniture on the flannelboard in room arrangements.
- Write lists of furniture items on the chalkboard under specific categories.
- Prepare word families such as bed, bedroom, bedspread, bedspring.
- Prepare cue cards with names of furniture to use in substitution drills or language games.
- Prepare experience charts regarding shopping for furniture.
- Read furniture advertisements.
- Read a do-it-yourself booklet. Answer questions about it. Outline it. Summarize it.
- Listen to a carpenter or furniture polisher tell how he would make or polish something.
- Prepare and dramatize dialogs (an inquiry about the price of a piece of furniture, a complaint about late delivery).
- Make up a shopping list of furniture needed for a new home.
- Discuss installment buying, credit buying, cash payments.
- Simulate several furniture buying scenes in a furniture store.
- Discuss the care of furniture.
- Tell about similarities or differences in furniture styles in one's native land.
- Write compositions related to furniture.

A Unit On The Constitution For Upper Intermediates Or Advanced Students

I. Concepts to be developed regarding the Constitution

- A. It is the supreme law of the land.
- B. Its objectives are stated in the Preamble.
- C. Its basic principles include the following
  1. People govern through chosen representation.
  2. Some powers are delegated to the National Government by the states.
  3. There is a system of "checks and balances" to avoid domination by any one branch of the government.
  4. Each branch of the government has specific powers.
  5. Individual liberties are guaranteed in the Bill of Rights.
  6. The law is supreme.
  7. There are definite terms of office, qualifications, and methods for selecting officials in order to ensure true representation.
  8. The Constitution may be amended or changed by peaceful means.

II. Activities that will reinforce these concepts

- A. Listening and speaking
  1. Listening to recordings of the Preamble
  2. Repeating the Preamble in chorus after the teacher
  3. Learning to understand, say, and use key words such as *majority, republic, election, citizenship, cabinet, amendment, elastic clause, checks, balances, legislature*
  4. Explaining the statement "The Government of the United States; one of law, not of men."
  5. Discussing the rights and responsibilities given by the Bill of Rights
  6. Discussing the amendments to the Constitution and their significance today
  7. Discussing the role of citizens in changing legislation
  8. Discussing Lincoln's statement, "Government of the people, by the people, for the people..."
  9. Inviting a senator or representative to speak to the group
  10. Listening to and learning the Gettysburg Address
  11. Outlining the steps required for a bill to become a law in Congress
  12. Discussing the function of the President's cabinet
  13. Outlining the functions of some important Federal agencies
  14. Dramatizing a possible scene (the statesmen debating the inclusion of items in the Bill of Rights)

How Are Varied Audiovisual Materials Selected And Used?

The use of audiovisual aids when they can effectively motivate a lesson, clarify concepts, reinforce learning, or supplement the textbook is highly desirable. Not only can such aids give greater insight into concepts being presented or practiced, but they also add the necessary variety to a 2-hour lesson in which initial motivation needs to be reinforced and sustained continuously.

There now exist many commercially prepared audiovisual aids, and, thanks to the current explosion of technological knowledge, many more will shortly find their way into the schools. The brochures and manuals sold with the equipment will provide guidelines which the teacher can follow or adapt.

The main thing to remember about any aid is that it has no importance by itself. A tape recorder is useful only if the tape used on it helps the student learn; a teaching machine is worthless unless the program (that is, the text) inserted in it is good and if the teacher skillfully guides the students to use it effectively.

In using any aid, some basic factors to consider are

- Is it appropriate for the lesson?
- In which phase of the lesson should it be used?
- Should it be used with the entire class or with a small group?
- How can it be integrated into the lesson?
- Is it the *best* device for the purpose? (For example, real objects in miniature are often inferior to pictures since they may not give the concept of size or relationship.)
- Is it subject to mechanical breakdown? Is there another available to replace it?

It is important that every aspect of the use of an audiovisual aid be carefully anticipated. For example, will the use of pictures require a ledge on which to place them or a student helper to flip them? Will a student's help be needed to insert a filmstrip in the projector or to set up the screen? Also important is that the teacher have a chance to preview the material to be shown in class in order to prepare a "script" with language which the student viewers will understand and plan introductory and followup activities.

Which Audiovisual Aids Can Be Used Effectively?

The chalkboard can be the teacher's most effective tool. The following are suggested applications of and techniques for using the chalkboard.

- Indicate the characters speaking in a dialog. Simply draw stick figures on the board and point to them as they "speak."

- Drill expressions such as "Good morning/ afternoon/ evening." Place lists of hours on the board and give the appropriate greeting while pointing to each. Have the class and then the individuals repeat them.

- Practice mathematics problems.

- Teach directions. Draw a diagram of a park or of a few city blocks in the vicinity of the school and give students practice in expressions such as, "Walk to the opposite end." "Turn right."

- Clarify the comparative and superlative. Draw lines to illustrate "big," "bigger," and "biggest."

- Help students see the recurring patterns in English with diagrams such as:

One	More than One
He's a *tall* boy.	They're *tall* boys
She's a *tall* girl.	They're *tall* girls.

- Engage students in various language or citizenship drills. For example, they may complete sentences, match two columns of words or phrases, or substitute lists of words on the boards for words in a model sentence.

- Indicate rising or falling intonation through arrows or lines.

- Show word stress by underlining the stressed part of the word (apple, become).

Audiolingual Aids

Audiolingual aids in language teaching are a major force today, and the language laboratory has become an important tool. In the teaching of a second language, the laboratory can provide excellent models of speech for imitation and manipulation by the student. It permits additional audiolingual practice outside of class and allows individual selection of exercises. Each student can repeat an exercise as many times as necessary. The laboratory's value as a technological aid is effective for both individual and group work, allowing for more objective and accurate criticism and correction by the teacher.

The laboratory, as an adjunct to the classroom learning and teaching environment, can offer unlimited opportunities in:

- Listening-comprehension practice

- Mimicry-memorization practice

- Creative practice

- Self-instruction
- Self-evaluation practice

These opportunities cannot be offered in the conventional classroom where every student has only a few minutes time to recite in every period.

Language is a skill. It is not just something one talks about or thinks about. It has to be spoken, used, and practiced. The laboratory is the logical place for this highly important facet of language learning.

The Picture File

Most teachers find that, second only to the chalkboard, a large file of pictures is the most useful single device a teacher can use. An extensive picture file can be used in teaching every aspect of English (its sound, structure, and vocabulary system) and also in developing cultural and citizenship concepts. In a traveling program, or when the classroom has no available space for storing a picture file, the director of the program may wish to keep a complete file in a central office or in the teachers' room. In this case, provision will have to be made for a simple procedure which will permit the teacher to select the appropriate pictures immediately before meeting the students and note the pictures removed. The pictures should be returned as soon as possible. Many teachers prefer to keep their picture files at home, bringing the pictures to class as needed.

Wherever the picture file is kept and whoever has charge of it, the following types of pictures are usually worth including:

- Simple photographs or line drawings showing single persons and single objects
- Pictures depicting a situation in which people are doing something, in which the relationship of objects to each other can be seen (e.g., a book *on* a desk; a bench *under* a table), or in which relationships of people to each other are clear (e.g., a mother and her child, a family)
- A series of pictures around a central theme on one chart (e.g., work activities, foods, silverware, room furnishings, men's clothing, women's clothing, etc.)

The following is a suggested list of the basic categories of pictures:

- Related to the school--people, places, instructional materials
- Related to the home--people, rooms, furniture, silverware, pots and pans, home activities, meals, recreation, food, pets
- Related to the community--workers (mailman, policemen, firemen), places (post office, police station, hospital, clinics, places of worship, places of work, different kinds of food stores and other shops, places of recreation), types of houses, means of transportation

- Related to holidays--people, foods, typical decorations, ethnic observances in the American setting (feasts or celebrations of national holidays)

- Miscellaneous--anything else from the community to which these students belong

The following suggestions about the gathering and use of pictures may be helpful to teachers:

- Collect more than one picture of objects or people.

- Use a sweeping gesture over the entire picture when teaching the word it represents. Unless this is done, students often get the notion that the word refers to one part of the picture.

- Make sure pictures are large enough to be visible from all parts of the room.

- Collect some pictures in color in order to teach position of color adjectives and other expanded sentences.

- Omit captions so that the same picture can be used to give practice in many different structures and to discuss various situations.

- Use pictures singly when teaching vocabulary items and patterns of language.

- Use pictures singly, in pairs, or in groups of three to teach pronunciation, contrasts, and vocabulary structures as follows:

  Individual Pictures

  This man is a carpenter.

  This woman is a singer.

  Pairs of Pictures

  Mr. X is taking a train (a bus, a car).

  Mr. X is talking to a (boy).

  Three Pictures

  Mr. X always takes (a bus) to the hospital (his store, his home, his daughter's home).

  Does Mr. X take (a bus to his store every day)?

- The pictures in the series for practicing structures may be used as the following example, appropriate for a chart depicting items of clothing, suggests:

a. What's this? It's a (coat, dress, sock, stocking, shoes, suit, handbag).

b. I have a _____.

c. I don't have a _____.

d. I need a _____.

e. What do you need? I need a _____.

f. May I have a _____?

g. Show me a _____.

h. How much does the _____ cost?

i. I'd like a _____.

j. Where do you sell _____?

k. I'm going to the store to buy a _____.

l. If I had the money, I'd buy a _____.

m. I bought a _____ yesterday.

n. I paid _____ for a _____.

o. This _____ is mine.

p. This _____ is (his, hers). It's not (mine).

q. This _____ is too (small). I'd like to see a larger one.

r. The _____ I bought yesterday doesn't fit well.

Real Objects

There are any number of tangible objects and documents a teacher may bring into class for use in vocabulary practice. A basic collection might include: menus, flags, newspapers, magazines, signs, maps (road, weather, places), recipe books, ticket stubs (transportation, theatre, film, museum), reproductions of documents such as the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, tax returns, court and legal documents, ballot forms, insurance policies, catalogs (equipment, appliances, clothing), travel guides, containers (of food and other items), forms (job applications, Medicare).

These items might also be used to clarify concepts, to give language practice, and to serve as a basis for language games of all kinds when they are appropriate. The teacher may find them useful in giving practice in reading and writing and providing a measure of verisimilitude to role-playing activities.

Bulletin Boards

Bulletin boards are ideal for posting announcements, pictures, posters, and other items of interest.

Flash or Cue Cards

Cards approximately 5 x 12, with words, phrases, sentences, numbers, symbols (+, -, X, ÷, ?, ., ") may be used in conjunction with language drills, beginning reading, spelling, formulation of statements and questions, mathematics, and so on. Some techniques which the cue or flash cards make possible are as follows:

- Students may be asked to find matching pictures.
- Three or four students may be given enough flash cards to make a sentence. They may be asked to stand in the order in which the words in the sentence should be. Another student will then read the sentence which has been formed.
- Students may be asked to make sentences (statements or questions) using a word you show.
- Cards may be used to cue substitution drills. (It is important, however, to use the written word only *after* students have heard the word orally and used the picture and/or real objects.)
- The cards can be inserted into a pocket chart to show a word form or word order change or to create experience charts.
- Beginning readers may be asked to find, in a sentence at the board, the same word which is written on a flash card.

Exhibits

Exhibits may be set up for display of work done in class or material from the students' native countries.

One of the most versatile aids is the flannel board. Words, numbers, pictures can all be made to adhere to a flannel-covered board, either by making flannel cutouts (in different colors) of them or by using oak tag on the back of which you have glued some flannel or some emery paper.

Some educational supply firms also sell flannel cutouts of such items as scenes from fairy tales or folk tales, classroom objects, seasonal symbols (Christmas, Thanksgiving), foods, and furniture. These, as well as the cutouts prepared by the teacher, can be used at any stage of the lesson.

Cutouts are effective in presenting and practicing vocabulary, in teaching word order of sentences, and in giving some insight into customs. For example, names of men and women with numbers next to them on the flannel board can help students practice statements, questions, and responses such as:

"Mr. Smith is forty."

"Mrs. Jones is twenty-four."

"How old is Mr. Smith?"

"He's forty."

"Is Mrs. Jones twenty-four?"

"Yes, she is."

"Is Mrs. Jones thirty-four?"

"No, she's not. She's twenty-four."

"Is Mr. Smith *older than* Mrs. Jones?"

"Yes, *he is."*

"He's sixteen years older."

To illustrate further, cutouts of kitchen furniture can elicit practice as follows:

"The table is *in the center* of the room."

"The stove is *next to* the sink."

"*There are* four chairs around the table."

"The sink is *on the right side* of the kitchen."

"*Where's* the table?" etc.

A cutout of a supermarket can enable the teacher to drill statements and questions such as:

"Where's the *dairy department?*"

"*What do you need?*"

"*I need two quarts of milk.*"

Cutouts of the city hall and Post Office will vitalize practice in sentences such as:

"Where do I get a *driver's license?*"

"Where do I *fill out* my *Alien Registration Form?*"

At advanced levels, words related to the enactment of a law can be placed on flannel backed cards and can be manipulated to indicate sequential steps. Words related to citizenship might first be placed on the flannel board in random order and then moved under appropriate cutouts of cards indicating categories (e.g., city government; state government; federal government).

The Pocket Chart

A pocket chart may be purchased from an educational supply source. It may be made by placing several 1-inch creases in a large sheet of wrapping paper and stapling each crease at both ends to form pockets. It may also be made by stapling and gluing oaktag strips to a large piece of oaktag to form the pockets. Small flash cards or pictures may then be inserted into the pockets.

The pocket chart is an excellent device for dramatizing expansion of sentences or changes in word order. For example, in teaching negative requests, the teacher can illustrate very simply that all the students have to do is place a *don't* card in front of the base forms of the verbs.

The pocket chart can be used at the beginning level for recording some experience of the students or for summarizing class discussion. Sentences given by the students (and restated correctly by the teacher) could be inserted into the pocket chart. After a class trip to some place of interest, sentences reviewing the common experience can be inserted into the chart, with a small picture at the end of each sentence to illustrate it.

The teacher might wish to have beginning learners make individual pocket charts, so that the students at their desks may perform the same action as the teacher at the large pocket chart. The fact that they are changing word form or word order by the physical movement of their hands may lead to more effective learning for those students who learn best by doing rather than watching.

Programed Textbooks

Programed textbooks which permit students to learn at their own pace and which give them an immediate indication of the correctness of their responses are becoming available. While many programed textbooks are advocated by their publishers for use without a teacher, this does not apply to the Americanization programs at the beginners' level, since the texts and equipment prepared to date are not designed to indicate and check the correctness of pronunciation. In using programed material, it is helpful if the teacher or an able "buddy" reads all the material aloud which the students are to study. It is helpful, too, for teachers to evaluate their textbooks very carefully for appropriateness and to actively guide the students in using them.

Filmstrips And Slides

Filmstrips and slides also have certain advantages. Each frame can be shown for as long as is necessary and the teacher can vary the language according to the level of the students' understanding. Later, as the students grow in skill, the same filmstrips or slides can be shown and discussed with more complex language. Moreover, students can be asked to prepare captions, statements, or questions for them--orally or in writing.

Miscellaneous Materials and Equipment

- Charts depicting a situation (e.g., voting, shopping)
- Dictionaries (possibly several bilingual ones)
- An encyclopedia (if possible)
- A world almanac
- Books in English about the students' native lands
- Books in the students' native language
- Books on the same theme at several language learning levels
- Overhead projectors
- Opaque projectors
- Current issues of newspapers and magazines
- A primer typewriter (large type)
- Readers with carefully controlled vocabulary
- Teaching typewriter
- Video tape recorder

How Can Audio Aids Be Used?

The Tape Recorder

One tape recorder can be used for full-class instruction or for small-group instruction (the latter, either by using a corner of the room so that others will not be disturbed or by allowing six or seven students to use headphones attached to jacks on the tape recorder). It can be used to give intensive, repeated drill in pronunciation, structure, and vocabulary; to train students in listening to dictations or aural comprehension exercises; to record students' voices several times during the semester to help them note their progress (only after they have overcome their possible fear of the recorder, however); to tape television or radio programs for intensive class study; and to tape quotations and speeches spoken by voices other than that of the teacher.

Although tapes are available from commercial producers, college departments of education, and other public agencies, teachers may wish to prepare their own tapes to meet the special needs of their classes. Books giving detailed procedures for making tapes will be found in the Bibliography.

Many schools in which adult programs are conducted now have language laboratories with many tape recorders. In such a laboratory, an entire class can work with one tape or on one activity as suggested above, or individual students can work with different tapes, each at his own speed. Moreover, in more elaborate language laboratories, playback facilities allow the students to hear their own voices. Playback is not always of real value, however. Unless students have learned to hear and identify sounds, intonation, and rhythm, they will not be aware of the differences between their speech and that of the model. There is always the danger that, by listening to themselves instead of to the teacher's model, they will reinforce their own mistakes.

If arrangements can be made with the day school in which classes are held or with nearby schools, language laboratories might be used by the adult students, either as part of the regular class activity or as a library activity in the late afternoons or on Saturdays. As in the use of any aid, it is important that work done in the laboratory reinforce what is being done in class. Teachers may find it desirable to learn the techniques of using the equipment and perhaps even preparing their own tapes.

The Record Player

Recordings of songs (American and foreign), inspirational musical material, speeches, poems, and quotations may be used when appropriate.

The Radio

Occasionally, radio stations broadcast specially prepared programs for language learners. In general, however, ordinary broadcasts are best reserved until the upper intermediate and advanced levels. Radio broadcasts which the teacher considers worthwhile may be taped, however, for use at a future date when the class is ready for them. With more advanced groups, the teacher may wish to turn on the news broadcast during the session and use it as a springboard for questions and answers and for discussing current events.

Television

A general television program shares the disadvantage of a motion picture in that it can neither be stopped nor rerun. Therefore, general television programs are useful only with more advanced students. On the other hand, the teacher may wish to secure a kinescope of a television program or tape record a discussion or speech given on television for later and repeated use by the class. It is hoped that soon television programs specifically devised to teach English as a second language to beginning and intermediate students will become available, at which time teachers might find it desirable to use such programs either as a springboard for their lessons, or as supplements to their teaching presentations.

Motion Pictures

Motion pictures can be used to give insight into many customs and values of continental America as well as to teach the language which is most appropriate in the social or cultural situations being shown. This procedure involves certain problems. Full-length feature films are usually too long for one session. The language used in the films is often too difficult.

Films can, of course, be shown with the amplifier turned off, and the teacher can provide a running commentary. However, unless the teacher can obtain a film especially designed for teaching English--and very few of these are available at the present time--it is considered wiser to defer films to the more advanced level of learning. Too often, the quick flow of speech becomes a source of frustration and despair for the beginning student.

The Teletrainer

The telephone company will be happy to supply telephones and other necessary equipment which will make it possible for students to dial numbers, get busy signals, ask for information, make mock friendly or business calls, and engage in the numerous conversational activities which are part of the American scene.

All the audiovisual aids described above, together with many others that are constantly being invented, can vitalize instruction. It is advisable, however, that their use be restricted to supplementing, not replacing, what the teacher does. They should never be used just because they are available, but because they will bring greater understanding of culture, or greater skill in one of the language abilities--both major objectives of this program.

What Are Some Techniques Helpful In Vitalizing Learning?

Playing Games

Games appropriate for adults which reinforce language learnings or a knowledge of citizenship facts can be stimulating. For example, one student may say "I'm thinking of a national hero." Other class members will then ask questions such as, "Is he living or dead?" "Was he a politician?" "Was he a President?" "Did he invent the sewing machine?"

Singing Songs and Reciting Poems

Students enjoy current popular songs or songs related to some phase of American history. They like to recite poems. These too can serve as a way of showing them the functional use of language in communication experiences. Many excellent recordings of songs and poems are available on tapes or discs.

Using the Known Environment of Students

Relate all lessons to the students' backgrounds and their probable experiences in the community in which they are living. Use numerous "you" questions (depending on the topic under discussion) such as, "Where do you shop for food?" "On what day do you shop?" "Have you been to the beach?" "Have you ever gone to an employment agency?" "What do you buy in a post office?"

Other Suggested Techniques

- Dramatize numerous dialogs.
- Vary the type of student participation. For example, use chain drills, then have students call on other students to answer questions *they* have formulated, and then have them ask you questions.
- Call on the more able students before calling on the less able or more timid ones. In this way, the latter group can hear responses which will be reasonably correct.
- Utilize community resources. Bring the community into the classroom by inviting speakers or by collecting brochures and materials from community agencies.
- Take trips with the group. In the evenings, the teacher and the class might go to places like the library, union offices, community centers, art exhibits, or factories which may have a night shift. A trip can serve many purposes. The teacher's planning might make provision for discussion concerning date and time of departure, the money necessary, the routes to be taken, and questions to be asked of the host or guide, if there is one. Writing can be practiced in natural situations. Letters are written to the place to be visited asking for permission to visit. Letters of thanks are sent after the trip. An experience chart--at beginning levels--or a summary of the trip is prepared and copied. When descriptive literature about the place to be visited is available, groups of students who are able to do so might be asked to read portions of it and report their findings to the class.

What Materials Are Effective In Individual And Group Instruction?

Whole-class and Subgroup Activities

No matter how carefully the initial placement of students has been carried out, there will exist a wide range of abilities and interests in all classrooms. This will be true whether the program makes provision for placing students in separate classes at various levels--beginning, intermediate, and advanced classes--or whether all students are placed in one class.

Early in this handbook, it was pointed out that certain aspects of a foreign student's background can lead to difficulties in learning and pronouncing English. Since these difficulties vary from one student to another, it is usually not possible to have all the students work together during the entire lesson. Moreover, with adults, it is usually not desirable to do so, since they will normally have different occupations, different aspirations, and different social needs. Each will want to learn as quickly as possible the language and information which will enable him to function effectively and to achieve success as he perceives it.

The teacher may find it effective--indeed, necessary--to divide the class into subgroups and, in addition, to help some of the students individually. Those, for example, who have entered the class late will need special materials to cover the work already done by the others. Those whose written language system is other than the English one, will need material especially prepared for them. There will always be some (because of such factors as poor native ability, timidity, or psychological problems) who will be slower than others. In these and similar cases, individualization of instruction becomes a professional responsibility of teachers and program directors.

Here are suggestions which may be useful to teachers attempting to help individual students:

- More able students in the class will need training to lead the subgroups or to serve as "buddies" to individuals.

- Worksheets and tapes could be prepared cooperatively by all teachers in the school or in the district.

- Most important, an accurate diagnosis of each student's problem or needs will assist in the preparation of appropriate worksheets and other materials (tapes, pictures, flash cards, etc.) and in giving specific directions to "buddies" to enable them to help the students assigned to them.

It is strongly suggested that *all* students be brought together several times during each evening. This will help them feel they belong to the class and that their worth and dignity have not been overlooked. All students, whether beginners or advanced, can profit from such activities as choral repetition, singing, reciting poems, and engaging in dialog practice. Moreover, it is suggested that all students stay together during the warm-up phase of the lesson or when current events of community or national interest are discussed.

After these whole-class activities, the class may be divided into two, or at the most three, groups. The teacher may then work with one subgroup or with individual students, while assigning work to the other subgroups under the guidance of a group leader.

It is usual for the work assignments for each group to be placed on the board in clear, direct form.

The teacher will want to make provisions for checking the work of each group at least once every two sessions, or every session if the class meets only once a week. In the eyes of adult students, not even the most gifted group leader can take the teacher's place. For this reason, it is suggested that the teacher work with two subgroups only, where possible, while helping individuals from each subgroup during part of the planned group time. If there are more than two subgroups, the preparation and checking of group assignments becomes rather time-consuming, unless there exists some organizational provision such as team-teaching or a materials-preparation committee.

There is one further aspect of differentiated activities. If the teacher feels students can profit from listening to reports of each other's work, they might be brought together in an audience situation. This could be very helpful, for example, after students have:

- Read material presenting different points of view
- Written original sentences based on the spelling words
- Prepared dialogs or narrative passages based on dialogs
- Done anything which could be of reciprocal benefit

How Can Worksheets Be Prepared And Used To Overcome Individual Learning Problems?

- Worksheets can be used with any other instructional material such as forms, real objects, pictures, or tape recorders.
- Worksheets can serve multiple purposes. The same worksheet may be used to practice language items and skills other than those indicated under "Sample Worksheets" below. On the worksheet with "Let's," for example, individuals or groups of students may be asked to say and write, "Let's *not* read." "Don't read." or "*Please don't* read." In the worksheet containing sample letters, students may be asked to answer questions about the letters, to formulate questions, or to do other related drills which they are ready to undertake.

- The teacher may find it a good idea to have exercises of increasing difficulty on the same worksheet. Students can gain a feeling of progress when they are asked to do more difficult (or more complex) exercises on a sheet the second, third, or fourth time they receive it.

- Worksheets may include varied types of exercises. Some may be devoted to repetition practice of only one language item. In other sheets, students may be asked to choose "consciously" among items they have learned. Some sheets may start with a dialog or a paragraph containing some unfamiliar words, the meaning of which the students are to guess from the context.

- Everything that has been said about worksheets is equally valid for the preparation of tapes. Moreover, since listening and speaking are basic communication activities, tapes are more valuable than worksheets for teaching pronunciation and also for stimulating growth in listening and speaking. As previously stated, tape recorders equipped with six or eight sets of earphones will permit students to listen to tapes without disturbing other students. It is also helpful if appropriate cue cards or worksheets are prepared for use with the tapes.

The combination worksheet and tape, enabling the students to listen, repeat, read, and write the same materials, is generally more desirable than written worksheets alone. In any case, unless the material on the worksheet reinforces something that has previously been presented orally, it is imperative that the teacher or a buddy say the material aloud for the students before they start reading or writing.

Sample Worksheets

The items below are only samples. Each is related to a particular learning problem. Individual pieces of drill material may be duplicated and placed on tape. The Bibliography contains references to books which contain additional language drills of all kinds for use on tapes.

For economy in presentation, drills centered about special learning problems are grouped together. For reproduction and adaptation, the teacher will probably wish to add to the examples, and perhaps present each problem on a different sheet. Also, care is needed to assure that students understand and can follow the directions on the worksheets.

To Practice Features Of The Sound System

1. Say these words:

    a. bag, gag, lag, nag, rag, sag, wag
    b. bat, sat, fat, hat, mat, pat, rat
    c. date, fate, gate, hate, late, mate, rate

d. chairman, cheer, choose, church, cheat

2. Underline each word that is pronounced like the *a* in *hat*:

   sat, wait, pat, mate, fate

3. Underline each word pronounced like the *g* in *George*:

   go, gem, Egypt, legible, group, legislate

4. Circle each word whose ending is pronounced like *wanted*:

   voted, combed, needed, watched, visited, elected

5. As you hear these words, underline the part that is stressed (or sounds loudest):

   appeal, alphabet, election, president, underline, cabinet, contain

6. Underline the part of the word in each sentence which is stressed (or sounds loudest):

   I voted for him.
   What kind of a job are you looking for?

7. Circle the words in the sentence that are *not* pronounced fully: (Note to teachers: In English, the following common words are unstressed: *of, and, to, a, in, is*.)

   I went to the city hall.
   The legs of the table are too short.

Grammar (Structures or Language Patterns):

1. Use *let's* in front of each word or expression:

   vote, go shopping, look for a job, read, sing, study

2. Use *please don't* in front of each word or expression:

   be late, pass the red light, step on the grass

3. Use *he* instead of the underlined words:

   Harry is hungry.
   Mr. Thomas is late.
   That congressman is active.

4. Change each statement to a question:

The Senator is here.
The nurse is out.
The student is ill.
John needs a book.
John has a book now.

5. Use *he* or *she* instead of the underlined words:

Mrs. Tomkins is a teacher.
Mr. Jones is a teacher too.
That woman is ill.
Mary is a good student.

6. Use *in* or *on* in these sentences:

The committee is ____ the room.
The poster is ____ the wall.

7. Choose the word in the parentheses which best completes the sentence:

The men (are working, works, work) every day.

8. Make sentences with the words in each column:

Column I	Column II	Column III	Column IV
I	we	they	are
there	eat	later	who
go	always	to the store	officers
everyday	at 9 o'clock	go	tall
		must	those

Vocabulary:

1. Place these words where they belong under the two titles:

Looking for an apartment *Looking for a job*

employer, boss, flat, foreman, lease, rent, salary, requirements, floorplan.

2. Cross out the word in each group which doesn't belong:

president, mayor, governor, judge
penny, foot, nickel, dime

3. Tell me two things you ate for dinner.

Reading

1. Circle the words that are the same:

AT   AT   TA   AT   AT   TA
PAT   AT   TAP   PAT   PAT   TA

2. Underline words beginning with the *same* sounds:

brother, bright, blend, bring

3. Draw a line under all words beginning with *q*:

quart, fourth, young, zoo, jar, quiet

4. Copy the *contracted* forms of the words below:

cannot, can't, is not, isn't
will not, won't, have not, haven't

5. Underline the part of the word meaning not:

unable, inability, disagree, unkind.

6. Divide these words into syllables: (Students may be permitted to consult dictionaries.)

income, obtain, legislation, understand, excise, revenue

7. Answer these questions about the sentence:

The senator went to the office yesterday at 7 o'clock.
Did the senator go to the office?
Where did the senator go?
When did he go?
What time did he go?

8. Read each letter and tell what kind it is:

A letter of protest
A letter asking for a job

9. Write the (four) things that have to be done: (This exercise is based on intensive reading of a passage on making a table.)

If you want to make a table you have to do several things: _____

Writing (In early writing activities students have to be guided in responding to directions.)

1. Copy the following letters in the boxes to the right. (It is best to start with the stroke letters--capitals, then with strokes and half circles, then with the circles.)

    A ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

    E ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

    F ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

    K ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2. Copy your name 10 times. (It is best to print the student's name on a strip of paper. Let him keep moving this model down so that he does not copy his own imitation of the model.)

3. Copy the alphabet. (Boxes may be prepared as above.)

4. Make these words mean *more than one:*

    boy, girl, book, notebook, ruler, pencil

5. Make these words tell about something that happened *yesterday:*

    walk, talk, wash, comb, need, fill, learn

6. Fill in the missing letters:

    a. ri--t, li--t, fi--t, bri--t
    b. rec--ve, dec--ve, perc--ve

7. Join these sentences to make one sentence:

    I paid a tax. It was $15.00
    I need a job. I want to be a carpenter.

8. Write out in full:

    MD., 45¢, IV, Mr., +, -, ÷

9. Change *I* to *we* in each sentence in the paragraph:

    I read the newspaper every evening. I like to look at the sports page.

Other Worksheets and Tapes

In addition to the worksheets related primarily to growth in a language skill, other worksheets and tapes can be prepared with model dialogs or paragraphs. Moreover, many worksheets can be prepared which will be related primarily to citizenship topics. The following is one referring to taxes and money. (The teacher might encourage the less able students to try the work designed for more advanced groups.)

1. Copy these sentences, completing them with the correct word:

   A person who works and gets a salary must pay an (inheritance tax, excise tax, income tax).

   A person who gets a ticket for speeding has to pay a (fine, toll, duty).

   A person who recieves a package from another country may have to pay (interest, customs, luxury tax).

2. Can you do these?

   The tax you pay on your yearly income is an (inheritance, excise, income) tax.

   Speeders are punished by having to pay a (toll, duty, fine).

3. These are more difficult. Would you like to try them?

   The Federal government collects (interest, customs, duty, luxury tax) on merchandise imported from foreign countries.

   Salaries, wages, and capital gains are subject to (inheritance tax, excise tax, income tax).

CHAPTER 8

GUIDELINES FOR EVALUATION

As has been pointed out previously, it is important to help students grow both in the ability to communicate and in social adjustment. To insure that the students are growing progressively and systematically toward the goals that have been cooperatively established, the teacher needs to devise and apply tests to determine the attitudes, skills, habits, knowledge, and interests they have actually acquired at each level of the program. The comprehensive, continuous assessment of each student's growth is an integral part of the Americanization Program.

The formal, teacher-prepared tests used may be of several kinds. Their results can be added to and compared with other observations that interviewers, classroom teachers, or administrators make about students. For example, the students' participation in class, their use of English outside class, their attendance, and their outside reading might all serve as informal, yet important, indicators of growth. Testing may also help to determine whether adaptations should be made in the curriculum, in teaching procedures, or in other aspects of the school program, including the evaluation.

How Can Students' Progress Be Evaluated?

Testing can become a powerful incentive to learning when the student participates without fear and inhibition. A student's knowledge that he is making progress may be a more important stimulus than any other type of motivation. In addition, test results which indicate that students have not grasped some important feature of English or some cultural information can guide the teacher in reteaching it--using a different approach, perhaps--or intensifying practice in it. Since language learning is cumulative, it is considered unwise to introduce complex material before the simpler material on which it is based has been reasonably assimilated.

The teacher will want to make sure that test conditions are favorable, that directions are clear and brief, that the first test items are simple, that emphasis on grades is avoided, and that the concept of tests as an aid to learning is stressed.

Frequent, brief, announced tests or reviews of material that has been thoroughly practiced serve many purposes:

- If the correct answers are given immediately after the test, the students' learning will be reinforced.
- If the results are good, students will gain a sense of achievement.
- The test results help give the teacher insight into students' difficulties and into segments of a unit which need reteaching.
- Tests may be used as a springboard for the new lesson to be presented that evening.
- They give both teacher and students a frequent "barometer" reading of progress.
- They stimulate student self-evaluation.

The tests or reviews may be oral as well as written. Written tests are of two types--short-answer tests and essay tests. Short-answer tests may duplicate the practice activities outlined in the preceding section on worksheets. They may be of the multiple choice, completion, substitution, or transformation type. They have several advantages: they are objective; they can be scored easily and quickly; they permit the testing of a wide area of knowledge.

Essay tests are unsatisfactory in a beginning language program. However, they can be useful and desirable at the more advanced levels. Only through essay tests can the teacher judge the students' use of varied structures, the richness of their vocabulary, and their ability to express ideas with clarity and precision. In other words, the longer essay tests permit the teacher to judge the ability of the students to use language as a tool for written communication.

Oral tests are indispensable for judging production of sounds, stress, rhythm, and intonation patterns; fluency; and habitual correct responses to oral or written stimuli. Oral tests may be time-consuming, however. There follow several time-saving techniques the teacher may wish to consider:

- Make a chart of five or six points to be graded. During each session, for a week or two, call several students to the desk individually. Ask each to repeat, read, and follow directions. (Give only as much material as is needed to ascertain their knowledge of the language items being tested that week or month). Grade them *only* on the original key points selected for grading. Ignore--and this can be painful in many instances--all other incorrect features.
- If there is a tape recorder, use a recording on which directions or stimuli are given. Have the students record their responses on a tape. (Ask each student to start at a different number on the counter and to record his name at the end of the test).

- Use the tape recorder to give directions. Have the students write their responses on an answer sheet. (This would test aural comprehension only.)

Combinations of listening and written tests would include those in which students take a dictation or a comprehension exercise; or in which they answer (in writing) questions, given orally or in writing, concerning a dialog or narrative paragraph they have heard. There will, of course, be overlapping in the skills tested. For example, doing an aural comprehension exercise eliciting written responses, involves the use of writing skills, thus enabling the teacher to note the students' knowledge of grammatical inflection, word order, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation. The test stimuli or cues may be varied just as they are in the classroom practice activities. Such stimuli might include: hearing spoken words (live or on tape), looking at a picture or several pictures, looking at real objects, and reading a word or a passage.

Sample Tests of Pronunciation and Sound Structure

There follow some examples of simple test items which may be used in constructing tests. Whether some of these are done orally or in writing (or by placing a correct symbol or letter on an answer sheet) will depend on the literacy and learning level of the students as well as on the objective of the test.

- Have students imitate pairs of words; e.g., *bit, beet; bag, back; thin, din.*

- Have students indicate which pairs of words rhyme; e.g., *vote, coat; elect, select; enough, through.*

- Have students mark the syllable having the loudest stress; e.g., *cabinet, police, mailman, legislate.*

- Have students indicate (by a prearranged code) rising or falling intonation; e.g., *Did you go to vote? Where did you go?*

- Have students indicate which column or picture is related to the work or to an entire utterance the teacher (or a tape) is pronouncing; e.g., *thing, think; I saw the cat. I saw the cot.*

- Have the students repeat longer sentences.

- Have the students respond to directions (use one utterance with beginners and more than one with more advanced students).

- Give a spot dictation. Distribute a sheet with a passage containing some missing words. Dictate the full passage and have the students write the missing words on an answer sheet.

- Give an aural comprehension exercise.

- Have students tell what they would say (or do) in a certain situation. They would hear (or read) one or more sentences describing a situation. They would tell how they would respond.

- Have the students describe what they see in a picture.

- Have the students tell about something they did at some particular time, something that happened, or something that is going to happen.

Testing the Students' Grasp of Sentence Structure

- Have students select the appropriate word from two or three words by underlining, numbering, or writing on an answer sheet; e.g., The (*man, men*) work every day.

- Give transformation exercises; that is, have students change statements to questions, make singular sentences plural, make affirmative statements negative, or change the present tense to past or future tense.

- Have students use given words in a group of sentences; e.g., (go to work) "I'm_____now. Yesterday I_____at 8 o'clock. I always _____at 8 o'clock."

- Have students ask direct questions based on indirect questions; e.g., "Ask Mr. Jones where he works."

- Have students write or give the paired sentence; e.g., "Mary is going to read later. John is going to study later." "Mary reads every day. John_____."

- Have students make all changes required by a cue; e.g., (These) "This clinic is for babies."

- Have students complete sentences:
  "I_____thirsty. ('ve, 'm, have)

- Ask students questions of various types. Indicate whether the requirement is a *yes* or *no* answer, a short or long answer, or a combination short and long answer.

- Have students combine sentences; e.g., "She's a student. She's very good." "That man is a fireman. He's talking to the policeman."

- Have students match the possible correct rejoinders. (It is a good idea to have one additional stimulus item so that guessing will be minimized.) For example,

Column I	Column II
1. "Thank you."	a. "Not too well."
2. "Is he old enough to vote?"	b. "He's over twenty-one."

3. "When are you leaving?" c. "Of course."

4. "How are you feeling?" d. "You're welcome."

5. "May I smoke here?" e. "The day after tomorrow."

6. "Where does he live?"

- Give an aural comprehension exercise.
- Have students write a summary of a reading selection.
- Have students formulate questions based on any oral or written selection.
- Present an outline and have the students prepare a letter, story, or dialog from it.

Determining Growth in Vocabulary

- Have students select the related (or the unrelated) words in a list.
- Have students give a word having similar meaning (a synonym)
- Have students give a word having the opposite meaning (an antonym).
- Have students give other words of the same family; e.g., *govern, government, governor.*
- Have students make nouns from verbs; e.g., *select, vote.*
- Have students add suffixes or prefixes to given words.
- Have students complete sentences with the appropriate word; e.g., He went from one end of the factory to another. He went (to, through, at) the factory.

Testing the Students' Knowledge of Citizenship

- Have students complete statements where choices are given; e.g., The first President of the United States was (Lincoln, Roosevelt, Washington).
- Have students say whether a statement is true or false.
- Give the false statement and ask students for the true one.
- Have students complete statements where no choice is given.
- Have them match related items.
- Ask questions.

APPENDIX I

AIDS FOR TEACHING THE SOUND SYSTEM

The International Phonetic Alphabet

Since many books and materials include some mention of phonetics and since adult students who attended schools abroad may have learned the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), it may be desirable for the teacher to become familiar with the phonetic transcriptions used for sounds in English. Phonetic transcriptions need not be given to students except as indicated below. The teacher may find the transcription useful in indicating a troublesome sound or a mispronunciation quickly. For example, if students continue to say *chew* instead of *shoe*, the teacher can say, "It's this sound (ʃ)." To indicate unstressed syllables in English, the teacher may teach the sound (ə). (IPA symbols are usually enclosed in brackets.) Following is a slightly modified version of the IPA system.

Vowels

IPA	English Word	IPA	English Word
(a)	lot	(ɔ)	saw
(ae)	lap	(o)	boat
(e)	late	(u)	room
(ɛ)	let	(U)	put
(i)	feet	(ə)	up, a (boy)
(I)	fit		

Diphthongs

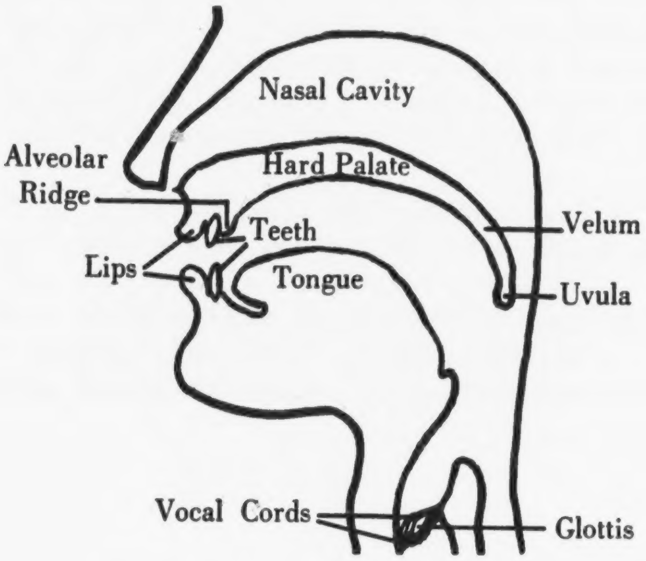
(aI)	sign	(ɛir)	hair
(aU)	now	(əir)	learn
(ɔI)	joy		

Consonants

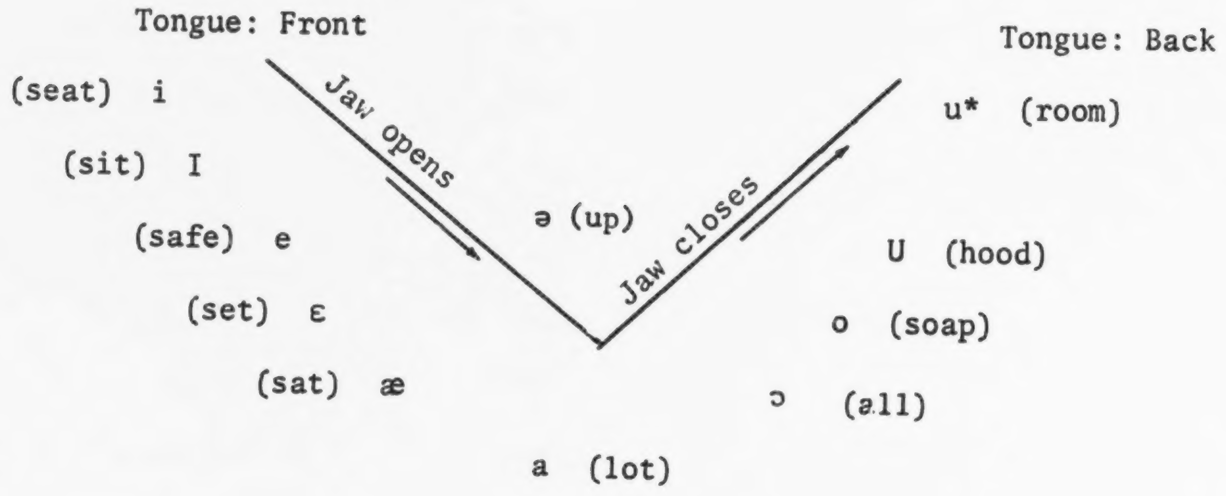
IPA	English Word	IPA	English Word
(b)	butcher	(s)	senator
(d)	desk	(ʃ)	shop
(f)	flag	(t)	teacher
(g)	govern	(θ)	thick
(h)	hat	(ð)	this
(k)	cat	(v)	village
(l)	let	(w)	wind, what
(m)	make	(y)	you
(n)	nothing	(z)	rose
(ŋ)	ring	(ʒ)	measure
(p)	Peter	(tʃ)	chin
(r)	rob	(dʒ)	joke

The Vocal Organs

The organs used to produce sounds are shown in the following diagram:


Nasal Cavity
Alveolar Ridge
Hard Palate
Teeth
Velum
Lips
Tongue
Uvula
Vocal Cords
Glottis

Viëtor Triangle



Possible Pronunciation Conflicts: English and Spanish

Certain English sounds are particularly difficult for students of diverse linguistic backgrounds to hear and say. The problem may arise for several different reasons:

- The sound does not exist at all in their native language.
- The sound exists in a different position.
- The sound is not phonemic; that is, it does not make a meaning difference (e.g., (b) and (v) are used interchangeably in Spanish).

While it is of primary importance that the teacher know how to guide students in the production of English sounds, it is also desirable for the teacher to be aware of the sounds which will cause frequent and recurring difficulty so that appropriate materials and activities can be prepared. A brief listing of those English sounds which are in conflict with the sounds of Spanish are shown below. It would be helpful if similar lists could be prepared for the other native languages of the students.

It is important to remember also that in English there is frequently no one-to-one relationship between symbol and sound. For example, the letter *i* in Spanish is always pronounced like *ee* in *see*. In English, it has several pronunciations depending on surrounding letters (e.g., *pie, machine, bit, bite, I, circle, habit, air, heir, wait, neighbor, biscuits, privelege.*) Some mispronunciations frequently found among Spanish-speaking students are:

English vowels

(I) in *fit*, pronounced (i), as in *feet*

(ε) in *let*, pronounced (e), as in *late*

(æ) in *hat*, pronounced (a), as in *hot* (ɔ) in *law*, pronounced (o), as in *low*

(U) in *foot*, pronounced (u), as in *food*

(ə) in *a* or *but*, confused with the sound of the Spanish vowel represented by the letter; e.g., *but* might be pronounced as the English *boot* because the *u* in Spanish has the value of (u)

English diphthongs

(ɔI) in *boy*, pronounced not as a dipthong but as two vowel sounds

English consonants

(b) and (v) are confused because they are not two separate phonemes in Spanish; therefore, *berry* and *very* may sound the same

(d) as in *den*, pronounced (ə), as in *then*

(g) as in *gem*, often confused with the sound of *h* in hot

(h) as in *hat*, not pronounced at all, so that the *hat* sounds like *at*

(dz) as in *jello*, pronounced *y*, as in *yellow*

(n) as in *name*, pronounced as the nasal (ŋ)

(s) as in *rice*, pronounced (z), as in *rise*

(ʃ) as in *sheep*, pronounced (tʃ), as in *cheap*

(θ) as in *thin*, pronounced (s), as in *sin*

(y) as in *yellow*, pronounced (dz), as in *jello*

(Z) as in *boys*, pronounced (s), as in *books*

APPENDIX II

EXAMPLES OF DIALOGS

Following are some samples of dialogs teachers may wish the students to learn and to dramatize. Some contain only two statements; others are longer. With longer dialogs, illustrating *sustained* conversation, teachers may prefer, during the initial presentation, to help the students learn only the first two or three utterances. In other words, it may be desirable to teach the longer dialog over one or more lessons in logical, conversational segments. As students are asked, in later lessons, to add other sentences to the ones previously learned, they will get the feeling that they are making progress in conversation.

For example, in the dialog below on *Local Geography*, the students might learn only the first two statements during the initial presentation. In the following session, they might be helped to learn the next four lines and combine the first lines with the new ones.

It is hoped that teachers will change any of these dialogs to fit the particular needs of students and the characteristics of the community. It is hoped, too, that teachers will prepare--or encourage their more able students to prepare--other dialogs on topics of interest to them or variations of those included here.

In many cases, teachers will find it profitable to combine two or three short dialogs to create a longer, sustained logical conversation. Most of the self-identification dialogs lend themselves to combination. The combined dialogs can be practiced in mock interview situations.

The subjects of the sample dialogs are concerned primarily with information on subjects the students need as quickly as feasible. Teachers might wish to prepare (or ask students to prepare) dialogs based on the sections, *The Making of America* and *America Today*.

Self-Identification

Create a sense of reality by using the actual names of the students and other true facts in place of the words in parentheses--again, with due regard to the students' sensitivities.

"Hello. My name is (Mr.) (Bird). What's your name?"
"It's (Mrs.) (Bosco)."

"What's your name?"
"It's (Jack Smith)."

"What's your last name?"
"It's (Smith)."

"What's your first name, (Mr. Smith)?"
"It's (Jack)."
"Do you have a middle name?"
"Yes. My middle name is (Peter)."

"What's your name?"
"It's (Dorothy) (Lee)."
"Miss or Mrs.?"
"(Mrs.)."
"Thank you, (Mrs.) Lee."

"Are you married, (Mr. Norris)?"
"Yes, I am."
"Are you married, (Mr. Roberts)?"
"No, I'm not married. I'm single."
"Are you married?"
"No, but I'm engaged."

"Do you have any children?"
"Yes, I have (three) children -one (boy) and two (girls)."

"Do you have any (sisters)?"
"Yes, I do. I have one (sister)."
"Do you have any (brothers)?"
"No, I don't."

"(Mr. Jones), what's your wife's name?"
"Her name is (Rosemary)."
"(Mrs. Wilson), what's your husband's name?"
"My husband's name is (Henry). His name is (Henry)."

"When's your birthday?"
"My birthday is in (September). It's in (September)."

"How old are you, (Mr. Chin)?"
"I'm over 21 years old. I'm over 21."

"When were you born (Mr. Schiller)?"
"I was born on (April) (4th), (1935)."

"Where were you born, (Mr. Volo)?"
"I was born in (Italy)."

"Where do you come from, (Mr. Dors)?"
"I come from (Iran)."

"Where are you from?"
"I'm from (India)."

"What's the name of your home town?"
"(Nicosia)."
"I'm sorry. I didn't understand. Will you spell it, please?"

"What's your home town?"
"My home town is (Nicosia)."
"Where is that?"
"It's near (Catania) in (Italy)."
"How far from (Catania)?"
"About (25) (miles)."

"Where are you from, (Albert)?"
"(South Africa)."
"How do you like this country?"
"It's a great place to live."

"Where are you from, (Mr.) (Korn)?"
"I'm from (Kenya)."
"Is your wife from (Kenya) too?"
"No, she's from (Leopoldville)."
"Where is your wife now?"
"She's still in (Leopoldville)."

"Where are you from, (Mr. Allen)?"
"I'm from (Washington)."
"What's your address in (Washington)?"
"It's (22 F Street)."
"Do your parents live there too?"
"No, they live at (118 West 94th St.) in (New York)."

School

"What class are you in?"
"I'm in (Mr. X's) class."

"How many students are there in your class?"
"About (24)."

"What's your teacher's name?"
"It's (Mrs. Lee)."

"What time do you get to school?"
"I get here at (7 p.m.)."

"How do you come to school?"
"I (usually) come by (bus)."

"How does Mr. (Smith) come to school?"
"I don't know."

"How do you come to school, (Mr. Smith)?"
"I usually walk."

"When will this course end?"
"On the (26th) of (June)."

"When did you graduate from (secondary school)?"
"I graduated in (1951)."

"What was the date of your graduation from the (primary school)?"
"(June) (24), (1964)."

Documents

"I'd like to apply for a (marriage license)."
"Certainly, please take this form and fill it out."

"What's the matter, Officer?"
"You were going too fast. The speed limit in this area is (50 miles) an hour. I'd like to see your driver's license."
"Here it is."

Emergency Services

"Please send an ambulance to (46 Grove Street), (Apt. 12)."
"What's the trouble?"
"I think my father had a heart attack."

"Operator. I'd like to report a fire."
"Where is it?"
"At (67) (Jones) Street, (first) floor, apartment number (12)."

Public Transportation

"How do I get (downtown)?"
"Take the (Number 4 bus)."

"Is the (railroad) station far from here?"
"No. It's (a block) from here."

"I'm sorry I'm late, but there was a lot of traffic today."
"Did you come by car?"
"Yes, but from now on I think I'll take the (train)."

Communications

"Do you have a telephone at home, (Mr. Bush)?"
"Yes, I do."
"What's your telephone number?'
"It's (123-4567)."

"Do you have a phone (Mrs. Schiller)?"

"No, but my (neighbor) has a telephone. His number is (212-1234)."

"May I use your telephone please?"
"Certainly. You look worried. Is there anything wrong?"
"Yes, my (mother) fell and hurt (her leg)."
"Call the hospital. I have the number here (on a piece of paper)."
"Thanks very much. I hope they answer the call quickly."

"Why don't we telephone the (Millers). Let's see if they'd like to go out this evening."
"But I'd rather stay home. There are two programs on television I want to watch."
"All right, we'll stay home. Pass me the (newspaper), please. I haven't had time to read it yet."

Consumer Purchasing and Services

"Where are you going?"
"To the supermarket."
"May I go with you?"
"Of course, but we must hurry because it closes at 6:00."
"What do you have to buy?"
"Lots of things. I need bread, soap, meat, vegetables, and some eggs."

"That's a good looking car. When did you get it? I've never seen it before."
"Do you like it? It's brand new. My father got it yesterday."

Weights, Measures, Lengths, and Money

"Would you go to the store for me?"
"What do you want me to get?"
"Get pound of chopped meat and a dozen eggs."

"How much does this cost?"
"It was ($40). It's been reduced to ($20.75)."

Employment

"Where do you work, (Mr. Smith)?"
"I work at the (X) Factory."
"What about you, (Mr. Rivers)?"
"I work on (a farm)."

"What are the working hours in your office?"
"We work (40) hours a week -- from (9:00 to 12) and (2 to 6) and from (8 to 1) on (Saturday)."

"Are you looking for a job in an office or a factory, (Miss Jones)?"
"I'd like to work in an office if possible."
"Have you had any experience?"

"Not very much, but I can (type) and I'm going to evening classes to learn (shorthand)."
"Do you have any letters of reference from previous employers?"
"Yes, here they are."

"How can I find a job?"
"What kind of work are you looking for?"
"I haven't really decided."
"Well, look in the newspapers and see if any of the jobs advertised there interest you."
"Is that the only way to find a job?"
"You might also go to one of the private employment agencies in town."

Local Geography

"How big is this (town)?"
"It has about (15,000) inhabitants."

"Where's the (city hall)?"
"Two blocks to the (left)."

"Which way are we going now?"
"We're going to walk (10) blocks (south) and then (two) blocks (west) to the (library)."

"Please come to my house this (Saturday)."
"I can't come until (2:00) o'clock."
"That'll be all right."
"Where is your house?"
"Just (around the corner) from here. Walk to the (end) of this block, then turn (left) and walk along a few steps. It's number (49), apartment (3R)."

Recreation

"Would you like to play a game of (checkers)?"
"Yes, I'd like to."

"I'd like to go to the movies. What's playing (in the neighborhood)?"
"I'm not sure. Let's find out."

"Let's go to the movies."
"What's playing?"
"I don't know but we can buy (a newspaper) and find out."

"I saw a wonderful (play) last (night)."
"What was it?"
"('Othello.') The actors were (superb)."
"I must try to see it too."

"Hello. Did you have a good (weekend)?"
"Yes. I (rested) a lot and went to see a (movie)."

"What did you see?"
"*How the West Was Won*"
"Was it exciting?"
"Yes, it was very good."

"What are you reading?"
"It's the (latest best seller)."

"Good afternoon. May I help you?"
"Thanks, I was just looking over your collection of books."
"We carry all the latest (novels). We get new books almost every week."
"How can I join your lending library?"
"If you wish to take out a book, you must leave ($1) deposit and sign this card with your name and address."
"All right, I'd like to borrow this book (of short stories)."

"I had dinner in a restaurant last night."
"Did you? Where did you go?"
"(Downtown)."
"What did you eat?"
"I had (soup), (rare) (roast beef) with (mashed potatoes), (peas), and (salad)."
"What did you have for dessert?"
"I had (cheese cake) and (coffee). My (friends) had (apple pie)."

"It was a (good) play. The acting was (marvelous)."
"Yes, I enjoyed it. I'd love to see it again."

"Where are you going?"
"To the library. I want to borrow some books to read this (weekend)."
"What kind of books?"
"One (novel) and a (history) book, perhaps a (biography)."

Education

"Are you going to send (Jane) to a (nursery) school?"
"Yes, I'd like to. Are (nursery schools) expensive?"

"I'd like to take some courses next (semester)."
"In what subject?"
"(English)."

Housing

"I'm looking for an (unfurnished) apartment."
"How many rooms do you need?"
"(Three or four)."
"I have a (three) room apartment on the (sixth) floor for ($100) a (month). Would you like to look at it?"
"Yes, I would."
"Follow me, please."

"I'd like to complain about the service in our (building)."
"What's the trouble?"
"(Our garbage isn't picked up every day)."

Services

"Where are you going?"
"To the post office at the corner. I need some (stamps) and I must fill out an alien registration form there. It has to be completed by the end of this (month)."
"I'll go with you. I have to send a (parcel) to my (brother)."

Taxation

"We withhold part of your salary each week."
"What for?"
"It's applied toward your Federal income tax."

Weather and Seasons

"It's very (cold) today. Don't you think so?"
"Yes, I feel (cold) too."

"I hate the (hot) weather."
"I do, too."

"Were you able to take good pictures on your trip?"
"No. It (rained) every day. (I bought some slides)."

"Is this a good season (for fishing)?"
"Not around here. (Late) (spring) is best."

Getting the Most for Your Money

"What's that?"
"It's a mail order catalog. It lists a large number of things you can buy (at a discount)."
"How do you order? By letter?"
"Yes, just send a list of what you want and the money."

"What's that book you have?"
"Oh, that's a consumers report. It tells people what products offer the best value for their money."
"What do you want to buy?"
"I need a new typewriter and I'd like to know which is the best one to buy."

Credit or Installment Buying

"I'd like to get a credit card please."
"Certainly. If you'll go over to (Mr. Jones) at that desk (in the corner), he'll be happy to help you."

"I'd like to buy (an armchair) on easy terms, please."
"Of course, Sir. Here's a (leather-covered) one. It costs $95, a bargain at the price."
"What are the terms?"
"(Twenty dollars) cash payment and weekly installments of ($5) until it is paid for. You have to pay interest of course."

Banking

"I'd like to cash this check, please."
"Would you sign your name on the back, please?"
"Oh, I'm sorry. I forgot to do that."

"May I have some travellers checks, please?"
"Yes, Madam, what would you like?"
"(Five) ($10) checks and (four) (20's)."
"Here you are, Madam. Would you please sign them here?"

Common Formulas

"Do you mind if I smoke?"
"Not at all." "Please do."

"Do you mind if I smoke?"
"Not at all. There's an ashtray on the table."
"This one?"
"No, take the other."

"Would you mind moving over? I'd like to sit near the (window)."
"I'd be glad to move over. It doesn't matter to me where I sit."

Role-playing can be another effective procedure to stimulate student participation and to discover possible problems of adjustment to the community. Students might play the roles of persons in the community with whom they have had pleasant or even unpleasant contacts.

There are a number of other ways in which student participation and leadership may be encouraged. For example, students might be asked to assume the responsibility of making plans for field trips to places of interest in the community; they might make arrangements for social activities for the entire group; they might suggest and get in touch with speakers for school assemblies or class programs; they might assume the responsibility for classroom bulletin boards, containing current event items, class notices, pictures, and other pertinent material.

One effective technique for developing student-community relations is to have the students plan such activities as exhibits, plays, or musical evenings to which the public is invited. Active participation in a number of interesting experiences gives the student a feeling of achievement and stimulates his enthusiasm for and enjoyment of the program.

Teaching can be colorful, enthusiastic, and dynamic. Utilizing the incidental happenings of the day, audiovisual aids, creative teaching devices, work sheets, discussion techniques, programed materials, and the wealth of resources in terms of people, places, and materials which each community contains, cannot help but add color, variety, and zest to the classroom experience.

How Can Effectiveness In Teaching Be Ensured?

Suggestions For Creating A Friendly Atmosphere

- Introduce yourself to the students and write your name on the blackboard.
- Smile--everyone understands a smile.
- Get acquainted--pronounce the names of the students correctly.
- Call the students by name. Point to them only during drills.
- Address the students formally.
- Obtain the addresses and telephone numbers of the students.
- Talk distinctly and pleasantly.
- Give each student equal attention.
- Be informal but dignified in classroom procedure.
- Create a cooperative classroom atmosphere.
- Approach students as adults.
- Assure each student that he can learn.
- Praise and encourage each student.
- Help students to see the progress they have made.
- Make each student feel that he is important to the group.
- Remember that the adult student has a background of experience.

Suggestions For Maintaining Interest

- Give every student an equal opportunity to participate.
- Try to introduce an element of surprise in every lesson.
- Involve every student in the classroom activities.
- Use tact in keeping the loquacious student from monopolizing class time.

- Draw out the shy students and encourage, but do not force participation.

- Let students laugh together but not at one another.

- Encourage students to review, at home, work which was done in class, but don't *assign* homework unless students require it.

- Let the students do the talking.

- Make provision for musical evenings, trips, parties, and so on.

Suggestions For Planning Effective Teaching

- Prepare a plan for each lesson.

- Keep the teaching plan flexible, making necessary changes to meet the needs and interests of your students.

- Meet the needs and interests of your students.

- Be sure that each lesson has a central theme.

- Vary teaching techniques and devices in different lessons and for different group needs.

- Review often. Relate "old" and "new" material.

- Keep all the students profitably occupied all the time.

- Design pivotal questions to elicit student experiences and opinions, summaries, reviews of material taught, and so on.

- Ask questions often that begin with *how, when, where,* and *why*.

- Provide colorful and dramatic teaching material.

- Help the students see how a word, a pattern, or a piece of information fits into a large area of communication or living.

Suggestions On Providing For Individual Differences

- Have each student proceed at his rate of speed.

- Provide opportunities for the more advanced students to help other students.

- Adapt lesson materials to several levels. Provide for group work.

- While groups of students are busy with reading or worksheets, help individual students who need special assistance.

Suggestions For Managing The Classroom

- Stimulate classroom attendance through letters and phone calls or by arranging to have an absent student visited by another (preferably of the same native background in the case of beginning students).

- Be in the classroom before the first student arrives.

- Have the classroom well lighted, ventilated, comfortable, and clean.

- Give attention to the physical set up of the room. Make it attractive.

- Be conscious of the hearing and visual acuity of the students and make special arrangements for students who may be handicapped.

- Prepare substitute material when school material is not available.

- Keep all required records and forms up-to-date. Make notations on students' cards about their progress and needs.

- Routinize procedures of classroom management (calling attendance or distributing material). Devote maximum time to teaching.

APPENDIX III

RESOURCES IN THE COMMUNITY

I. What are the resources in our community?

- A. Employment agencies
  - 1. Private
  - 2. State
  - 3. Personnel office in stores, factories, plants
- B. Health
  - 1. Clinics
  - 2. Hospitals
  - 3. Health centers
  - 4. Child care centers
- C. Welfare
- D. Government agencies
  - 1. City, state, Federal
  - 2. Post office
  - 3. Police station
  - 4. Fire department
  - 5. Others (specify), such as health, library, social security
- E. Banks and stores
  - 1. Savings banks
  - 2. Commercial banks
  - 3. Supermarkets
  - 4. Food stores
  - 5. Home appliance and furnishing stores
  - 6. Clothing
  - 7. Repair shops
- F. Places of worship
- G. Schools
  - 1. Elementary (include nursery, prekindergarten, etc.)
  - 2. Secondary
  - 3. Colleges
  - 4. Adult centers

II. Which resources offer special services? Examples of possible remarks are given below. Every community is different.

- A. Employment

  _____Agency does not charge the employee.
- B. Health

  A (Spanish)-speaking receptionist is available at the _____.

There is no fee at the Eye and Ear Clinic.
The emergency division at the _____ Clinic is open 24 hours a day.

C. Welfare
Supplies eye glasses, shoes, clothing

D. Places of worship
_____Church has services in (Italian).
_____Temple has an Adult Center.

E. Stores
The _____ and _____ stores have (Spanish)- speaking interpreters.

APPENDIX IV

A POSSIBLE WELCOME BOOKLET

It is desirable to give each student an attractive booklet which will outline the essential information about the program. The booklet should be distributed at the time of registration. It may be written in simple English (with diagrams to illustrate concepts; it may be prepared in several of the major foreign languages spoken in your community, or it may be bilingual with English and a foreign language on facing pages.

Since the booklet is intended to welcome and encourage the students, it should be carefully prepared with the help of bilingual foreign speakers if possible.

Outline

Name of School   Name of Director

I. Introduction
  A. Welcome
  B. The goals of the school
  C. The importance of learning English and of becoming participating citizens
  D. The need for student cooperation

II. General information
  A. Hours of attendance and other routines
  B. People and places in the building (e.g., library, laboratory, general office)
  C. Office hours of the director, clerk, etc.
  D. Drills such as fire and shelter

III. The school program
  A. The curriculum
  B. Books and materials
  C. Special services or facilities (e.g., language laboratory, film program, visits to homes, trips)

IV. Community resources (the list of resources shown earlier may be attached to the booklet and later used in classes for discussion.)

V. Looking ahead
  A. Higher educational opportunities
  B. Citizenship

APPENDIX V

A GLOSSARY OF USEFUL TERMS

Note: Many of these terms have been used in this handbook. Others may appear in textbooks teachers may have occasion to use.

active vocabulary The content and function words of a language which are learned so thoroughly that they become a part of the student's understanding, speaking, and later, reading and writing vocabulary. (See also: *passive vocabulary*.)

anthropology The social science which studies all the features of a culture (including language). (See also: *Culture*.)

approach The introduction to a unit of work or to the intensive study of language or citizenship items through procedures or devices that motivate students, e.g., a song, dialog, folk tale, film, recording; a synonym for "method;" e.g., the audio-lingual approach or the aural-oral approach.

articulation The smooth continuous transition or sequence from one learning level to another; the meeting points of the vocal organs in the production of sounds.

audiovisual Relating to any material or technique used in teaching which appeals to or utilizes the ear and the eye.

backward build-up A technique for teaching utterances of more than six or seven segments. Breaking them from the end into small, logical segments helps teachers and learners maintain the appropriate intonation. Each segment is modeled by the teacher and repeated by the students. After the individual segments are learned, the entire utterance is repeated.

chaindrill The type of learning activity in which individual students consecutively make statements, ask questions, or respond to questions, when cued by the previous student.

choral repetition The imitation of spoken material by an entire class or by a group speaking together.

cluster The sequence or bunching together of consonants or other language elements (vowels, nouns, verbs, etc.)

cognate A word in one language which looks similar to and *has the same meaning* as a word in another language; e.g., (Spanish-English) nacional/national. (Beware of false cognates: that is, words which look the same but have different meanings; e.g., the Italian word "attualmente" which means "at the present time," should not be seen as the cognate for the English "actually" which means "really."

conflict Interference or problems in learning a language caused by the ingrained habit of saying something in a certain way in one's native language.

conscious selection The step in the learning process in which students choose between two language items which may cause interference. For example, students are asked to replace the name by the pronouns *he* or *she* in a sentence such as *Mary is speaking*. Or, students are asked to choose the correct form of the verb in a sentence containing the word *now*.

content words Words in the vocabulary that denote *things, actions,* or *qualities.*

cocurricular Relating to activities in which students engage outside the classroom but which stem from a classroom activity and/or interest (sometimes called "extracurricular").

cue A stimulus which is given to elicit a response. The cue may be a gesture, a picture, a word, a sentence, etc., which is used to call forth a desired response.

culture The customs, traditions, mores, values, beliefs, and language of a group of people.

direct method A procedure used in teaching a language in which everything is taught in the language being learned--through pictures, pantomime, objects, etc. The native language of the learner is never used.

evaluation Tests (oral, written, short answer, essay, etc.) and other measures (such as observation, experimentation) to ascertain results being achieved and progress being made toward objectives of language learning.

experience chart Several statements in the students' own words telling of a trip they have taken or of any other activity in which they have engaged. These sentences are written by the teacher on a piece of oaktag or on the chalkboard and are used later as initial reading material.

formula An expression of greeting, thanks, agreement, etc.--such as "Thank you." "Good morning." "Not at all." -- which native speakers habitually use in communication.

function words Words which have no meaning by themselves but which are used in utterance to signal grammatical relationships; e.g., auxiliaries, prepositions.

inflection The change in the form of a word; e.g., girl, girl's.

intonation The rise and fall of the voice.

lexicon The words or vocabulary of the language. The lexicon includes content words and function words.

linguist A person who analyzes and describes languages.

linguistic science The body of knowledge that analyzes and describes the system of language. It is concerned with the sounds, grammar, and vocabulary of a language.

minimal pair Two words that sound alike except for one phonemic difference; e.g., bag/back, sheep/ship, bit/pit.

model The perfect or near-perfect production of a sound, word, or utterance given by a teacher, a native speaker, or a tape for imitation by students.

morphology The study of the changes in forms of words; e.g., "sing," "sang," "sung;" "child," "children;" "I want," "he wants;" "agree," "disagree."

pattern An arrangement of sounds or words which recurs systematically and which is meaningful.

phonemic A unit of sound that gives a word a distinctive meaning; e.g., "p" or "b" are phonemes because they make the difference in meaning in the pair "pit" and "bit."

phonetics The science which deals with the physical production of sounds.

polyglot A person who speaks several languages.

spiral approach One in which a language item or citizenship concept is taught in greater depth at succeeding learning levels.

stimulus Any signal (manual, oral, visual) to which a person responds or reacts.

structure The recurring patterns of the language as they occur in forms of words (morphology) and in arrangements of words in utterances (syntax): the grammar of the language.

syntax The arrangement of words in sentences.

system The recurring patterns of sounds, word forms, and word arrangements in a language that distinguish it from any other language.

utterance A word, expression, or sentence said by someone which has meaning by itself and before which and after which there was silence on his part.

voiced sound A sound made with the vocal cords vibrating; e.g., /b/, /d/.

voiceless sound A sound made while the vocal cords are not vibrating; e.g., /p/, /t/.

This booklet is published primarily for use in the schools of New York State, and free copies are available to New York State school personnel when ordered through a school administrator from the Publications Distribution Unit, State Education Building, Albany, New York 12224.

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